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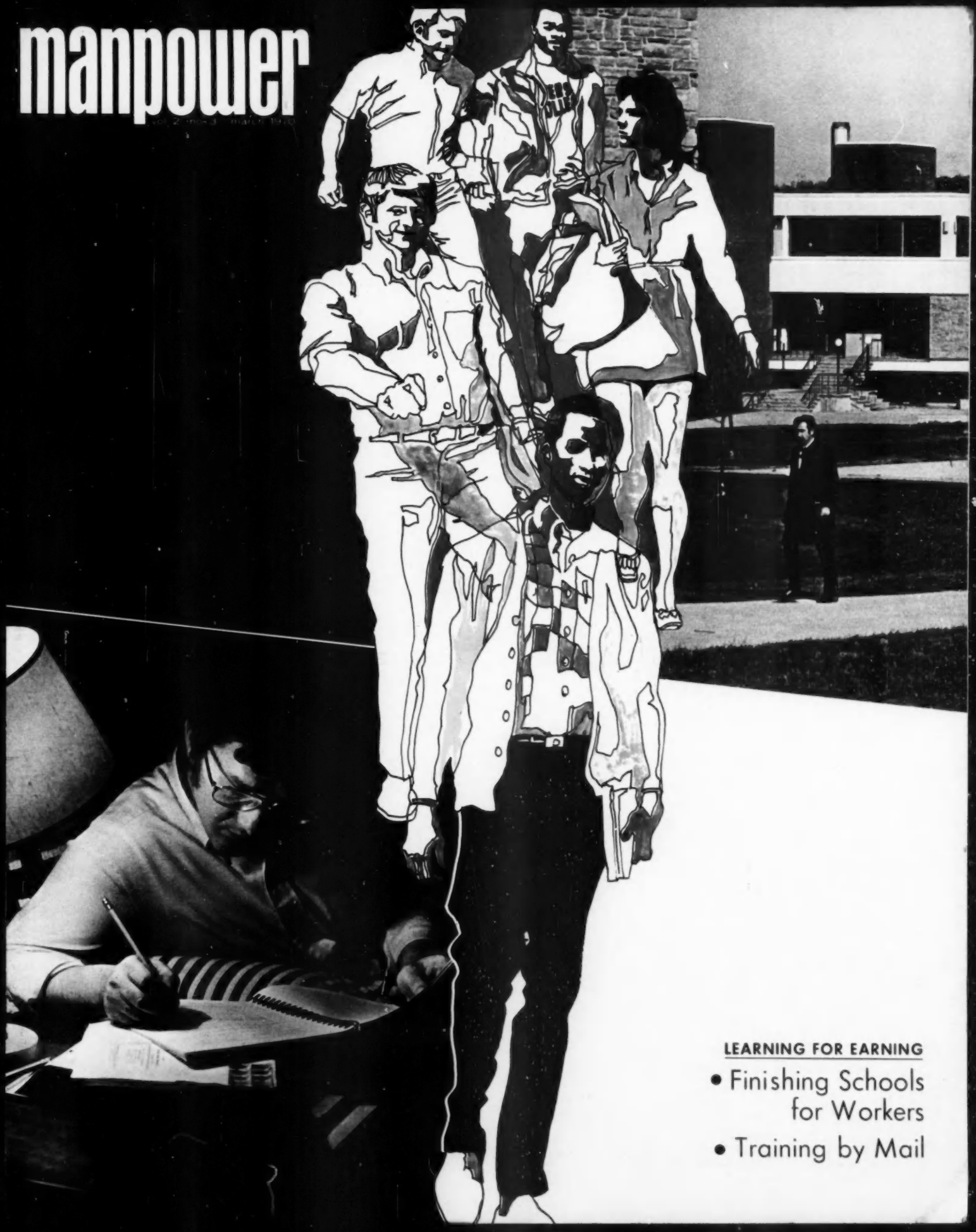

LEARNING FOR EARNING

- Finishing Schools for Workers
- Training by Mail

XUM

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"No woman on earth is worth more than $2,000 a year." — **Page 14**

"To be sitting beside a Corpsman, the same age as my daughter who is a college student, and be reading 'Am I an ant?' was enough to almost tear me apart at times." — **Page 25**

" 'Why me?' I kept yelling at them, until I choked on the smoke." — **Page 30**

". . . there is as much reason for national concern about technical education as there was for concern about the education of scientists and engineers 2 decades ago." — **Page 5**

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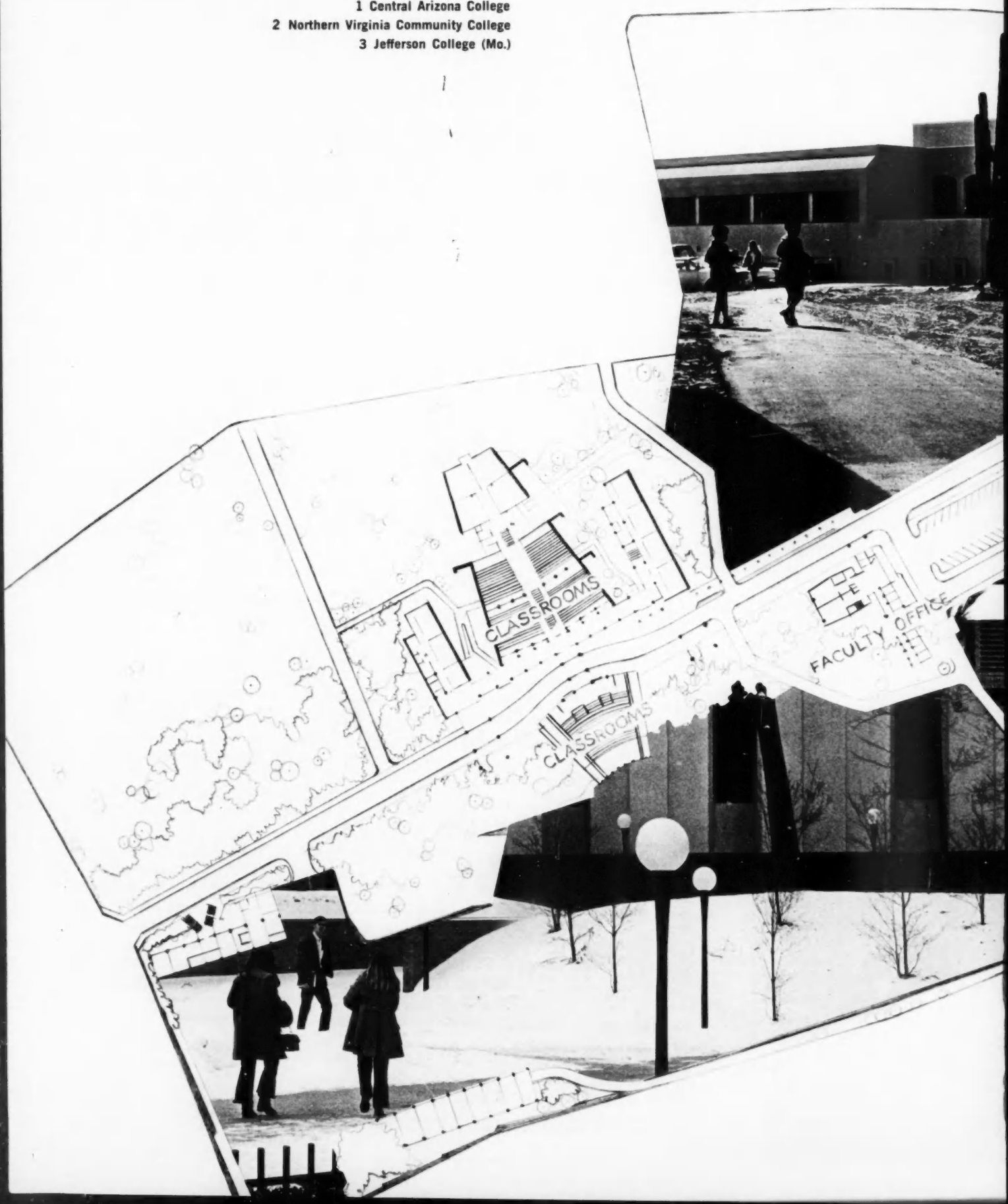
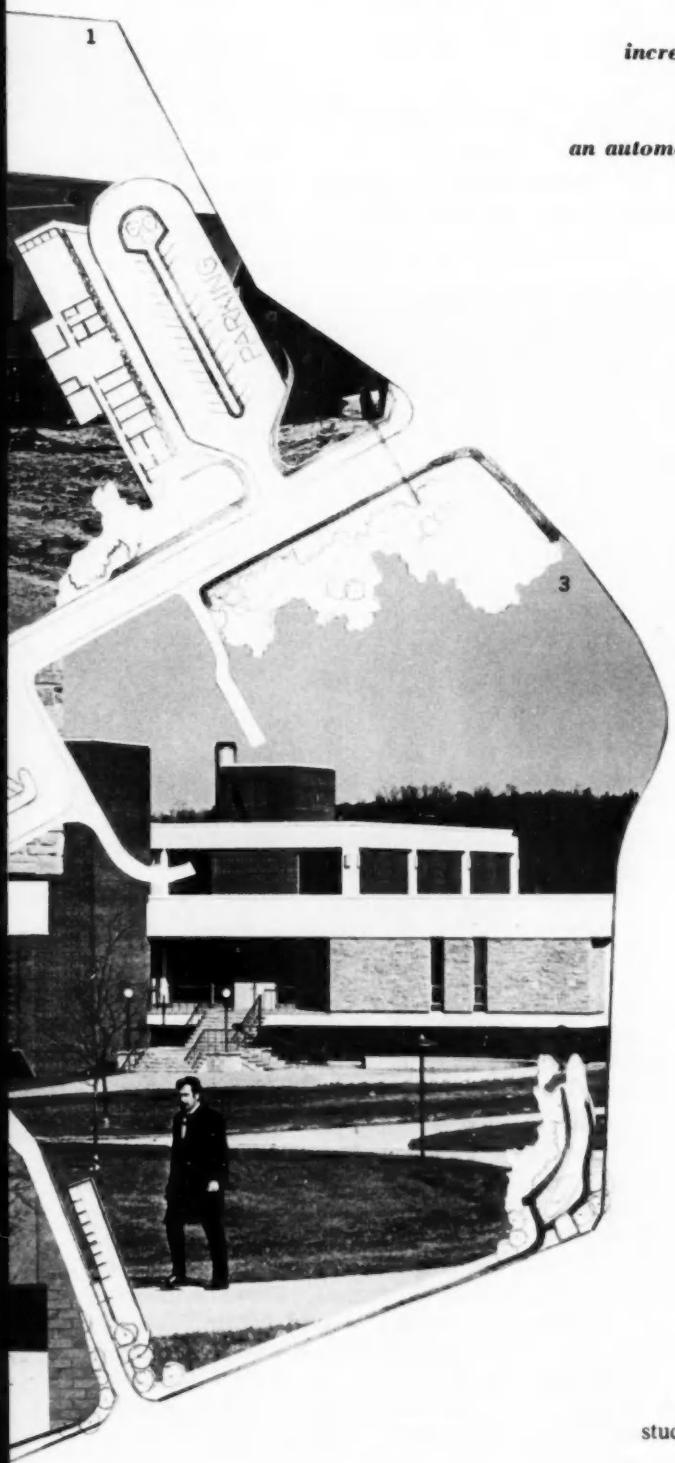
Ellis Rottman, editor
Emil Michael Aun, associate editor
Patricia Marshall, assistant editor
Richard Mathews, art director
Sally Moffat, associate art director

1 Central Arizona College
2 Northern Virginia Community College
3 Jefferson College (Mo.)





"We have the most critical shortage of technical manpower ever known in this country because of the increasing impact of technology on our lives. . . . I am certainly as pleased as anyone that man has circled the moon, but I would be even more pleased if the commuter trains could get me to New York City on time. . . . As the owner of an automobile, I am impressed with its beauty and its power, but I wish I did not have to wait a week before my dealer would look at the car to see if he could eliminate a problem. As the possessor of a television set, I am awed by this demonstration of man's mastery of electronics, but I wish I could find someone to remedy a condition where I get channel four when I tune into channel two, and never get channel two at all."

—Charles S. Jensen, Board Chairman, C.I.T. Corp.

Finishing Schools for Workers

By Rose Wiener

One important answer to critical shortages of technical manpower is the community college. Spreading like brush fire across the land, community colleges are starting up at the rate of more than one a week. They now enroll 2 million students and expect to double their enrollments by 1980. About half the students go to school part time; many take only one or two courses. Nearly 40 percent eventually end up taking occupational programs to learn skills needed by modern business, industry, and public service.

The growth of community colleges during the 1960's was phenomenal. They were based on the idea of the junior college—a school that sometimes is private, residential, and expensive—which has been part of our education system for more than half a century. The number of community and junior colleges is now close to 1,000 and enrollments in these schools are triple those in 1960. Like the earlier junior colleges, community schools offer 2 years of post-high school studies to prepare students for junior year transfer into a 4-year college or university, but in most other respects they are very different.

To standard junior college fare, community colleges have added occupational studies and made them a major part of the curricula. They offer 2-year programs of technical and semiprofessional studies capped by the award of an associate degree (an award academic graduates also receive) and 1-year certificate programs to train for less skilled jobs.

Community schools build parking lots instead of dormitories and serve primarily a local, commuting clientele. They are publicly supported, charge an average semester tuition of $200—some make no

Mrs. Wiener is an economist in the Office of Manpower Research, Manpower Administration.

charge to school district residents—and welcome all sexes, races, religions, and ages. Generally, their stiffest admission requirement is a high school diploma or its equivalent in work experience or special education courses. The proclaimed goal of the community college is to maintain an open door.

About all these colleges must do to be deluged with students is to open this door—anywhere. Students pour into schools temporarily located in unused high school space, abandoned factories, wooden buildings and trailers, or permanently ensconced on campuses spreading over hundreds of acres dotted with modern classroom complexes.

When Tarrant Community College in Fort Worth opened in September 1967, it enrolled more than 4,000 students. Federal City College in Washington, D.C., one of the few 4-year community schools, had more than 6,000 applicants for 2,000 openings in its first term in September 1968. Like its sister schools, Federal City has grown rapidly since birth and now has 4,500 students. It also has 10,000 applications on file with more arriving daily. School officials foresee an enrollment of 21,000 by 1975, but along with other community colleges, Federal City must depend on public financial support—most funding is from local and State sources—to build and expand facilities.

To serve their student bodies, community colleges frequently stay open from 8 a.m. to 11 p.m. Mondays through Saturdays. Some larger schools, like Florida's 22,000-student Miami-Dade Junior College and the 15,000-student Los Angeles Trade-Technical School, run weekend sessions especially for employed people and provide nursery care for their children.

Clearly, there is great pent-up demand for education and training which is finding release as community colleges open for business. The source of this demand is not only a youth population of unprecedented size seeking entry into college but also older men and women trying to keep work skills in line with changing job opportunities or, simply, to get an education.

Labor Dept. photos by Robert Moeser

1

2

Community college occupational training fare across the country is richly varied. But some "core" programs are found in most schools: Secretarial studies, business administration, accounting, data processing, drafting, automotive mechanics, electronic and chemical technologies, graphic arts, and preparation for work in public service and in health occupations such as nursing.

In addition, schools adopt programs to fit large local manpower requirements. Schools near big medical centers train such specialists as bio-medical engineering technicians. Others offer training in chemical research, oceanographic science, optics technology, horology and micro-precision instrumentation, forestry, or agriculture. Hundreds of such locally inspired programs are listed by the American Association of Junior Colleges.

At Miami-Dade College, retraining programs are important because of the great influx of Cubans into the area. Cuban doctors, lacking credentials to practice medicine in the U.S., sign up for hospital administration, pharmaceutical courses, or similar studies in the health professions. Cuban businessmen study computer technology or other skills to equip themselves for a new line of work.

Central Arizona College gives the three R's an important place in the curriculum. The college is located in Pinal County, where 8.8 years is the median education and the population is largely made up of low-income Mexican Americans, Negroes, Indians, and white farm labor families. An open door policy, the college states in its master plan, cannot function unless a school offers programs

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Occupational training at Northern Virginia Community College is typical of the varied fare offered by similar schools throughout the Nation.

1 Secretarial studies are one of the staples of the community college catalogue.

2 Police science and fingerprinting go hand in hand.

3 Automotive repair students learn their trade from the ground up.

4 Student interest and enrollment in electronics courses reflect the tremendous growth of this industry.

"commensurate with the entry level academic standing of the individual." At Central Arizona, basic education precedes entry into vocational, technical, and professional programs for a quarter to a third of all students.

Nationwide, only 30 percent of community college students initially sign up in occupational programs. The rest first sign up for academic programs leading to transfer into another college after completion of 2 years of study, but only about half of them actually make this transfer. Those who make it to 4-year institutions do well and make an important contribution to the Nation's supply of highly specialized personnel.

Among students who do not transfer are a considerable number who get their associate degrees, then leave school entirely. Some are girls who leave to take care of home responsibilities. Nontransfers also include those who fail to make it to the associate degree: They drop out of college for lack of funds, interest in academic courses, or capability. A third group of nontransfers changes over from academic programs to occupational studies.

"Eventually, about 40 percent of community college students end up in occupational programs," reports Kenneth G. Skaggs, who is in charge of these programs for the American Association of Junior Colleges.

Switching programs in this direction is simplified by the fact that occupational students must take about half of their courses in general education. When academic students transfer to occupational programs, they use the credits they have already gained to fill general requirements and concentrate on vocational studies.

In 1968, some 78,000 students earned community college associate degrees for completing 2-year occupational programs, and another 20,000 completed certificate programs requiring at least a year of study. Skaggs estimates that a tabulation now underway of last year's graduates will show their numbers increasing about 20 percent, in part due to the opening of new colleges. Among these graduates, business studies are most popular, followed by mechanical and engineering technologies—drafting, construction, metallurgy, auto mechanics, electronics, instrumentation, and similar skills. Medical, dental, library, law enforcement, and other semiprofessional programs also turn out large numbers of trained workers.

Most occupational students do not make it to graduation day. "These students are listed as dropouts, but not all of them can be equated with dropouts," Skaggs says. "Community colleges are complaining loudly that great manpower demands take tremendous numbers of their students before completion of training. Industry is recruiting students out of the colleges and completing their training on the job. This is especially true wherever there are large industries or concentrations of 'clean' industries such as electronics and scientific firms. On the west coast, not a single student has been graduated as a medical laboratory technician by a community college. These students have all been hired as soon as they completed a few basic courses."

Skaggs says this trend is worrisome because, although students get work in occupations of their choice, they may later find that they can qualify only for local or beginning jobs and lack qualifications required elsewhere.

This drain of occupational students does, however, underwrite findings on manpower shortages recently made by the Task Force of the Commission on Science Education of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. The task force said: "The need for educating larger numbers of highly trained technicians is reaching the critical stage, and there is as much reason for national concern about technical education as there was for concern about the education of scientists and engineers two decades ago." It recommended that junior and community colleges train these technicians.

A study sponsored by the Labor Department's Manpower Administration, "The Shortage of Skilled and Technical

Workers" by Walter Franke and Irvin Sobel, made a similar recommendation. The authors found that community colleges provide the "most general solution" to needs for reduction of training costs and for increasing the numbers of engineering and electronics technicians, medical technologists, and licensed practical nurses. Community colleges already form the major job entry route for tool and die designers, the study reported.

If community colleges are to have significantly greater impact than they do now on technician scarcities, they must find ways to attract and hold low-income students, a manpower source now insufficiently tapped and one that could make an important contribution to combating inflationary bottlenecks in tight labor markets. Even when colleges with an "open-door" policy are available at low cost, large numbers of students who could benefit from their programs never get in. Many who get in are soon forced to drop out.

Annual Costs Top $1,200

In "The Opening Door—A Review of New York State's Programs of Financial Aid for College Students," published by the College Entrance Examination Board, Richard Pearson said that 63 percent of the State's white high school graduates went on to college in 1965 but only 16 percent of Puerto Rican graduates and fewer than 20 percent of Negroes did so.

For low-income students, the costs involved in attending even free or low-tuition community colleges may still be high. In his 1965 study, Pearson found that transportation, home maintenance, personal expenses, and miscellaneous items brought annual costs for students attending the City University of New York to $1,205 and costs for those going to community colleges in the New York State system to $1,478. These costs are much higher today.

An uncomfortably close relationship between family income and educational and career opportunities is underlined by an American College Testing Program followup study of former high school seniors. The study found median family income was:

- $6,625 for students who never entered college
- $7,320 for students in nursing schools
- $7,640 for students in trade or business schools
- $8,025 for junior college students
- $8,426 for students in a 4-year college or university.

Family income also seems to play a decisive role in student decisions to attend school part time or full time, to work, or not to work. The average family income of working students, the College Testing Program found, was $7,050 compared to $8,560 of those not working. Families were a major source of help to community college students, but 5 out of 6 of those who managed to graduate worked while they went to school and 3 out of 10 worked 20 hours or more a week.

Ironically, the more likely a student is to need uninterrupted schooling the less likely he will be able to go to school continuously and full time. The open door policy of community colleges draws large numbers of students with average scholastic ability who need to devote full time and energy to school. But most of those in occupational programs and 4 of 10 men in academic programs go to school part time, compared to fewer than 1 in 10 men in 4-year collegiate institutions.

Few community college students find a major source of support in scholarships. Perhaps 90,000 students in the 1967-68 school year—about 6 percent of those enrolled—received help from such sources as National Defense Education Act loans, economic opportunity grants, or college work-study programs. The amount of aid from non-Federal sources or in Government guaranteed loans from private financial institutions was also far from adequate.

Exploration of student financial needs not only points toward hurdles in their paths but also suggests future directions for the community colleges themselves. Low tuition, few admission requirements, and convenient location are not enough to keep college doors open for vast numbers of students and potential students. Too many people still find college doors closed, or learn that for them the open door of the community college is a revolving door that spins them out soon after they get in.

Among their numbers are the poor, the

poorly prepared, and the poorly advised. Some are limited in what they are able to receive from higher education by inadequate schooling at lower levels. Unless a community college offers developmental or preparatory education services, these students may never be able to have a reasonable chance for college success. Guidance is important before and after college entrance. Many potentially good students are not aware that the open door is there and that opportunities abound on the other side of it. After entrance, guidance helps students select and reach realistic goals. More awareness of—and solutions to—the financial barriers that now keep so many potential students from entering or completing community colleges must be developed.

Community colleges are already taking some initial steps in these directions. About 70 of them throughout the country are providing education, training, and remedial services for New Careers projects administered by the Department of Labor's Manpower Administration. In this program, unemployed and underemployed people are helped to build skills to work and develop careers in public service agencies.

According to Jacob R. Fishman, president of University Research Corp., which is providing technical assistance to the New Careers Program, "Community colleges have been most interested and cooperative in developing new courses of study to meet the wide-ranging needs of disadvantaged persons undertaking new careers. We look on these colleges as a critical linchpin in the New Careers Program."

Several colleges have made a start, with varying degrees of success, in inner-city demonstration projects. Peralta Junior College District in Oakland, Calif., for example, set up outreach centers in inner-city areas to work with area residents in developing new approaches to their educational and cultural needs. Major funding for the demonstration came from the Office of Economic Opportunity.

Andrew Goodrich, minority group programs director for the American Association of Junior Colleges, says this type of program has been helpful in bringing colleges and inner-city areas closer together but it does not represent the permanent and deeply involved institutional commitment he thinks necessary if community colleges are to serve adequately those who are educationally and economically disadvantaged.

Ghetto Involvement Urged

Real involvement and effective outreach will begin, he says, when community colleges send faculty members into the ghettos to teach rather than dispatch students to man volunteer-run offices. In many cases, attitudes of community college professional and supportive staff toward minority groups and the poor must also undergo marked change, he says, if many eager, potential students are not to be "turned off" as soon as they get through the colleges' open door.

A number of junior colleges built before the new community college boom began have been surrounded by ghettos, Goodrich reports. "But although they are in the ghetto, many are still not of it because they have not yet become an effective, viable force for education in their present-day communities," he said. He noted that some have fled the city and gone to the suburbs, and a few of these are now opening branches on sites they previously occupied.

Goodrich praised Community College of Baltimore, one of the earlier schools whose neighborhood changed, as an example of total institutional involvement. It remained in the inner city, feels that it belongs there, and seeks to build a concept in the minds of inner-city youth that college is for them and not just for others.

The college president, Harry Bard, says that students of the area are not attracted to traditional 4-year colleges because these "have been more concerned with being urbane than with being urban. They have not organized programs in which young people can go to work as soon as they enter college or be able to prepare for employment in only 1 or 2 years of study."

The Baltimore school has enrolled about 400 inner-city youth, most of them on some loan or grant program. More than 63 percent of the college's students are in occupational career programs, whereas 10 years ago 69 percent were in transfer programs.

Will community colleges generally take such pathways to draw in more and more of the vast and wasted manpower potential in their areas? Or will they move in the direction of standard college and university fare and, as one community college put it, cut pages from someone else's catalogue? These questions deeply concern the American Association of Junior Colleges and the boards, administrators, and faculties of the colleges themselves.

Such questions are increasingly asked as community colleges proliferate. In Florida, community colleges are now within commuting distance of 99 percent of the population. Two universities have been founded to concentrate on the third and fourth years of the bachelor's degree program and the first graduate degree. They offer no freshman and sophomore courses.

Some educators predict that in a few years most college students will take their first 2 years of study in a community school. This would free other colleges and universities to specialize in upperclass and graduate teaching. But it may also alter the unique character of the community college by placing upon it enlarging demands for academic achievement and eventually make it more selective. □

Training

By Patricia Marshall

Last year more than 5 million Americans were enrolled in correspondence courses—about two-thirds as many students as attended all U.S. colleges and universities. By age, occupation, and course of study, correspondence students are a varied lot. But most of them have one thing in common: Their studies have a vocational purpose; they learn to earn. Most of those taking mail courses hope to move up military or civilian job ladders, enter a different occupation, learn a work skill, or update their training to keep pace with technological change.

Neither snow, nor rain, nor heat, nor gloom of night stays the postal delivery of correspondence school lessons. Some 15,000 courses, many of them duplicating each other, are on the market. Through the mails, people study accounting, aeronautical engineering, algebra, architectural design, auto body repair, basic English, carpentry, computer programing, criminal identification, fiction writing, insurance law, millwrighting, municipal administration, nuclear instrumentation, plastering, salesmanship, surveying, typewriter repair, tool and die making, traffic management, welding, waterworks and sewage plant operation, and other vocational, avocational, and academic subjects.

The largest purveyor of correspondence education is the Federal Government, led by the Armed Forces. More than a million servicemen and women take career-oriented courses and, through the U.S. Armed Forces Institute, another 350,000 study academic subjects that range from elementary through college levels. All told, military personnel make up over 60 percent of the people who study by mail.

Next in numbers of students are private schools selling home studies to the general public. With a few exceptions they are in business to make a profit. The National Home Study Council, an organization with a membership of 122 such firms, reports that 800 private schools it surveyed had a student body last year of more than 1.6 million people. Statistics on the private sector are incomplete. There are many small schools not reached by surveys, and there seem to be quite a number of schools that are difficult to locate because they resort to frequent changes of their names and bases of operation to avoid regulatory authorities.

Colleges and universities also market correspondence studies, and labor unions, trade associations, religious groups, and nonmilitary branches of the Federal Government develop such studies to serve their own needs.

Correspondence schools started up in the U.S. toward the end of the 19th century. One of the earliest, now a multimillion dollar enterprise, grew out of efforts of jobseekers to meet a requirement of Pennsylvania mine safety legislation that all mine inspectors and superintendents pass a qualifying State examination. A small town newspaper editor, who first agitated for mine safety measures and then promoted them, printed booklets to ready applicants for the test. Booklet lessons were followed by questions to gauge the readers' grasp of their subject matter, and answers were sent to the newspaper, where they were corrected and graded.

Emphasis on Job Training

Success in this venture led to a correspondence course in coal mining with sections on mining legislation, coal geology, mining methods, mine surveying and mapping, and—to shore up an important but often weak area—arithmetic. The entire course sold for $25, and students had up to 3 years to complete it. Soon added to the curriculum were courses for people who worked above ground: Steam engineering, electricity, architecture, plumbing, sheet metal pattern drafting, civil engineering, heating, bookkeeping, stenography, and English. Such studies made it possible for ordinary people, many of them immigrants, to work for a living at the same time that they equipped themselves to earn a better one.

Correspondence schools have maintained the heavy emphasis on job preparation that attended their birth. Most Armed Forces instruction of this kind is closely related to military requirements. All but a few member schools of the National Home Study Council teach subjects with a strong blue collar coloration or are in clerical, sales, applied science, or service fields rather than in purely academic ones. The practicality of subject matter is pointed up by school advertising and brochures with such messages as: "Train for a Job with a Future!" and "Opportunities Unlimited for Qualified Personnel," and "The Future Belongs to the Man Who Prepares for It."

Industries most often use correspondence studies for apprenticeship training. Currently in effect are more than 10,000 company agreements with private home study schools.

Republic Steel Corp. has used mail studies for apprentices since 1947, according to H. J. Kirkstadt, supervisor of employment and recruiting. These studies are now used in a number of company plants for training machinists, tool and die makers, electricians, roll turners, and mechanical and electrical draftsmen.

Mrs. Marshall is assistant editor of MANPOWER.

by Mail

To pay for the course, an apprentice has $10 a month deducted from his pay for 4 years. The company provides a supervised classroom to give apprentices a quiet place to study on company time, and at the end of their apprenticeship, if they are still at Republic, they receive a bonus which more than covers the cost of lessons.

At present, 226 apprentices are in the program. Of some 340 graduates who still work for the company, 20 percent are now in supervisory positions.

"These studies are well adapted to our needs," Kirkstadt said. "One apprentice at a time may begin training. He does not have to wait for a group to form, nor does he have to work on the same shift with other apprentices. What's more, he is able to progress at his own speed through the course."

The company is spared the need to hire teachers and correct and grade test papers, responsibilities of the correspondence school. A disadvantage of the system, Kirkstadt said, is that apprentices do not have a chance to discuss their lessons in a classroom situation and must wait for the mails to bring an answer to their questions from an instructor at the school.

A number of unions run their own correspondence courses for apprentices. The International Typographical Union (ITU) began putting its imprint on this training method more than 50 years ago. Today each ITU apprentice working in a commercial job shop or on a newspaper must finish 10 volumes of correspondence studies prepared by the union's education bureau. Studies are correlated with daily shop work to help the apprentice master all fundamentals of his trade. Completed lessons are sent to the education unit for correction and grading, then returned to the student. The local labor-management committee, which keeps tab on his progress, gets a copy of the scores.

New Techniques Taught

Seven years ago, ITU Local 101 in Washington, D.C., was instrumental in starting a special correspondence course for printers. Supplied by a private school, the course trains printers in the operation and maintenance of electronic equipment that is being used with increasing frequency to set type through photographic processes. It is open to ITU members, both journeymen and apprentices, throughout the country.

The International Printing Pressmen and Assistants' Union of North America currently has 5,500 apprentices using correspondence studies teamed with job experience. An apprentice selects one of nine correspondence subjects to tally with the type of press operation or related work that is his specialty. Lessons are free and mailed at regular intervals during the apprentice's 4-year indenture. An examination board, elected by the local union, corrects and grades unit tests.

To help keep up craft standards, the national lathing industry's joint apprenticeship program less than 2 years ago developed a course of correspondence studies. If local unions in the program have as many as 10 or 12 apprentices, they use the course's five volumes of textbooks in classroom sessions led by trained instructors. Otherwise, the same texts are used as individual correspondence courses. This assures that all apprentices cover the same ground.

Craftsmen and foremen make more extensive use of correspondence courses than any other civilian group. They make up more than a third of all students, according to "Correspondence Instruction in the United States," a recent study done under the Correspondence Education Research Project (CERP) financed by the Carnegie Corp. and published by McGraw Hill. Professional and technical workers come next with half as many students, followed by managers, officials, and clerical workers with only a few.

Nearly 20 percent of the veterans and servicemen using the GI Bill's educational benefits do so by mail, but they must get approval for each course from a State agency, generally the Department of Education, and their enrollment must have vocational objectives. They might avoid costly mistakes by talking to potential employers or the nearest State employment service office.

Many correspondence school students, it appears, may be limited in training opportunities by where they live as well as by the need to find training that fits into busy, working lives. The Carnegie report says that nearly half the adults taking correspondence courses live in areas with less than 50,000 population, and few live in large cities.

On the basis of salary, use of correspondence schools is highest among people in $4,000-$6,000 a year brackets —an indication, the report says, "that correspondence instruction has earned the reputation of being a poor man's school." But the report makes it clear that it takes a special kind of poor man to benefit from this type of instruction, for it points out that:

- The worker who studies at home may have to cope with disruptive noise and activity and find it hard to study.
- Mail lessons rely largely upon one means of communication — the written word—and not all people learn equally well from materials in this form.

Training by Mail

continued

• Student motivation and persistence must be extremely high.

"Nonstarts," people who sign up for courses but fail to complete the first lesson, are common in correspondence instruction. The dropout rate, students who complete some lessons but fail to finish the course, also is high. Some private home study schools report a 70 percent dropout rate and there is a 90 percent rate in some business and industry courses. Universities lose about 27 percent of their correspondence students after one lesson. Not surprisingly, student motivation is ranked by private home study schools as their most severe problem, and university and military course directors also put it high on their lists.

But for some people—determined students signing up with quality schools for courses that meet well-defined and realistic goals—correspondence courses may offer a great deal. School dropouts complete high school studies through the mails. Electronic engineers keep up to date on solid-state device parameters, integrated circuits, pulse techniques, and other techniques of their trade. Military men about to retire prepare for civilian occupations, and housewives complete interrupted college studies or take courses to prepare themselves for a job outside the home. Bank employees study accounting, commercial law, trust department services, and savings and time deposit banking to prepare for management positions. Many people have studied by mail, learned what they set out to learn, and gained tangible benefits.

Satisfied students cite as advantages of correspondence instruction its access ("as close as the nearest mailbox"); pace ("all students do not learn at the same rate, and individuals do not learn all sub-

1 David Hoover (left) and Melvin Prior, International Typographical Union apprentices at a Washington newspaper, check a sample advertising layout against a book that shows different sizes and faces of type.

2 Wendell Cooper, fourth year ITU apprentice, measures a line of type he has set from a correspondence lesson. Cooper couples correspondence studies with on-the-job experience in a Washington, D.C. print shop that specializes in legal documents.

3 Correspondence students need a suitable, quiet place to study.

4 Many correspondence schools are multimillion dollar enterprises, and correcting student examinations is a mass operation.

XUM

jects with equal ease"); flexibility ("students can control study time to fit around hours of other activities"); selectivity ("the student studies and pays only for what he wants and not for subjects that might be required by a college or other educational institution"); and individuality ("each student is in a class of one and has his instructor's complete attention").

In courses where equipment is essential for learning, home study schools supply kits so that students can carry out exercises and tests on a kitchen table instead of in a shop or lab. Obviously, these kits must be fairly simple and inexpensive and do not provide the kind of laboratory experience that takes place in high schools and colleges.

Study by mail has some booby traps for the unwary. The Carnegie report warns: "The correspondence instruction market is wide open to fraudulent operators. Anyone or any group can become a correspondence instruction supplier." It notes that the need for regulation lies primarily within the broad range of private home study schools: "When profit is the main objective, the risk of fraudulent operation is high."

Regulation of correspondence schools comes under State jurisdiction, but a number of States have not set standards for these schools or have minimal license requirements, with the result that they may attract dishonest enterprises. Among these are so-called "diploma mills" which award worthless certificates. Some schools pass out doctor of philosophy, doctor of psychology, and other degrees after a course lasting only a few months.

Some schools make misleading statements about course content and employment opportunities. They may suggest that graduates will earn from $12,000-$13,000, without explaining that years of experience are necessary to get this salary in the occupation covered by the course. Schools sometimes mask the fact that they

Training by Mail

continued

sell correspondence courses by running advertisements in "Help Wanted" columns which suggest an offer of employment; salesmen using a hard-sell approach work on people answering ads. Or schools may simply sell enrollments and offer no lessons of any kind.

Federal agencies have some weapons to use against such schools. The Post Office Department investigates complaints of alleged mail fraud and turns findings over to U.S. attorneys. The Federal Trade Commission has authority to halt unfair methods of competition and unfair or deceptive acts or practices in commerce. Often this involves time-consuming procedures, and in the interim a lot of people can be badly hurt.

The FTC constantly receives complaints from students who have been misled by sales pitches, and warns prospective students and their counselors to be especially on the alert for verbal misrepresentations by correspondence course salesmen. An FTC attorney also advises full understanding of any contract provisions for cancellation and refunds of fees and tuition because contracts are commonly sold to a third party. This action leaves students without legal defense against the third party even when they are disappointed in the course and want to drop out of it or when the school fails to hold up its end of the contract.

Accrediting Standards Set

William J. Cotter, Chief Postal Inspector, says that the Post Office Department has investigated 385 correspondence schools in the past 6 years, and 120 criminal indictments for mail fraud were returned by Federal grand juries. Sixty-one individuals were tried and convicted in this period. Cotter says that in closed cases where fraud was proved and people were convicted, or in borderline cases where schools discontinued operations without convictions, students and parents had spent roughly $22 million for instruction. Much of this money came out of the pockets of people least able to part with it—and willing to make great financial sacrifices to qualify for better jobs. Sometimes whole families were talked into signing up for worthless courses.

Fraudulent practitioners also hurt legitimate, profitmaking schools that try to offer honest value in the courses they sell. To build public trust and recognition and to promote sound standards and ethical practices in the home study field, several quality schools some years ago formed an association, the National Home Study Council (NHSC). To gain association entry, schools must pass inspection by NHSC's Accrediting Commission, which is listed by the U.S. Office of Education as a nationally recognized accrediting agency. Each school accredited by the commission must meet these standards:

- Clearly state educational objectives.
- Offer up-to-date, educationally sound instruction methods to meet these objectives.
- Provide adequate examination services, encouragement, and attention to individual students.
- Have a qualified faculty.
- Screen students for admission.
- Show satisfactory student progress and success.
- Advertise truthfully.
- Carefully select, train, and supervise field representatives.
- Have adequate financial resources to deliver high quality educational service.
- Charge reasonable tuition, use reasonable collection methods, and have a satisfactory refund policy.
- Demonstrate a satisfactory period of operation.

Schools must maintain standards once they get into NHSC. Last year the Accrediting Commission dropped eight member schools, including some big names, for failure to meet requirements. A directory of accredited member schools is available from the National Home Study Council, 1601 18th St., NW., Washington, D.C. 20009.

Not all quality private schools are accredited, however. Some reputable schools choose to operate outside NHSC; some market religious studies, which the Council's Accrediting Commission does not care to judge; some are too new to meet the requirements for 2 years of satisfactory operation before accreditation is considered.

Colleges and universities offering studies by mail are regionally accredited and are members of the National University Extension Association, National Center for Higher Education, One Dupont Circle, NW., Washington, D.C. 20036, which publishes a 50-cent list of available courses.

Accreditation gives public recognition to schools that meet certain standards, but it does not assure students that they will get courses which mesh with their career requirements and the realities of the labor market where they live.

The student aiming for a soil conservation or computer programing career may find, after finishing a home study course, that local employers do not accept such studies although employers in distant cities will. Students may prepare on their own for jobs where opportunities are going down rather than up. Unless they take training sanctioned by unions, industries, or trade associations, students may need guidance in deciding whether courses fit their needs.

Boost in Quality Urged

Nearly any subject can be taught in part by correspondence, and many subjects lend themselves to teaching entirely by this method, according to the CERP study. But the CERP report warned that suppliers of home studies must correct some serious deficiencies in their product if they would continue to have an important role in U.S. education.

Text materials and quality of instruction of many schools must be improved, the report said. The researchers recommended that home study texts be prepared and marketed commercially like those used in public schools and colleges. Competent instructors should be especially trained to teach correspondence studies.

The report also recommended that a national examining university be organized to set standards for correspondence courses, provide accreditation, and test and validate student educational experience—however gained—in units acceptable to the academic world. This would meet practical needs of students outside the formal education system and enable them to get validation for purposes of employment, promotion, certification, license, or entrance to college.

The CERP study found that with high quality in home study courses, and the special advantages that such studies hold for many people, correspondence instruction can play a useful part in meeting modern day needs for lifetime education, training, and retraining. □

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News & Notes

The revised Neighborhood Youth Corps out-of-school program, initiated February 1, will emphasize return to school and training for high school dropouts. Up to now, work experience has been the main component. The revised program requires project sponsors to give youngsters a full range of supportive services, to enroll only disadvantaged dropouts 16-17 years old, and to limit work experience to no more than one-third of the trainee's total time in the project. Each trainee and his counselor will draw up together a detailed plan of training. Sponsors must produce annual plans of training and placement for trainees, against which the Department will evaluate the sponsor's performance. The redesign will go into effect gradually, first in metropolitan areas, and later in rural projects.

* * *

The Nation's long-standing shortage of teachers appears destined to turn into a surplus. The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that job openings for elementary and high school teachers will total 2.4 million for the 1968-80 period. The output of trained teachers during those same years will reach 4.2 million.

* * *

The U.S. Department of Labor has formally approved the apprenticeship standards for truck mechanics put together by the American Trucking Association and the Teamsters Union. The standards are similar to those adopted several years ago by ATA and the International Association of Machinists. Each apprenticeship will be a 4-year program under the supervision of the union and the employer. Credit will be given apprentices for previous experience and service up to a maximum of 2 years.

* * *

Tennessee State University is conducting an experimental program to find out how dyslexia, a neurophysiological reading disability, affects unemployment and underemployment. The Labor Department is investing nearly $20,500 in the project, to be completed January 15, 1971.

A growing number of key executives in America's corporations are turning down transfers to big cities, according to the National Industrial Conference Board. Reasons: high living costs and rising crime rates.

* * *

The National Association for Retarded Children has received more than $252,000 in Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) funds to give on-the-job training to 500 mentally retarded workers in four States. Training will be in such fast-growing occupations as production assemblers, stock clerks, mechanics, laundry helpers, and nurse aides.

* * *

About 900 prospective apprentices and 350 journeymen--recruited from among minority groups, the disadvantaged, the underemployed, and the unskilled--will get on-the-job training in a new manpower project sponsored by the Operative Plasterers' and Cement Masons' International Association, AFL-CIO, and the Portland Cement Association. More than $1 million in Manpower Development and Training Act funds will be invested in the 16-month program.

* * *

Four Federal agencies--Defense Department, Labor Department, Bureau of Indian Affairs, and Civil Service Commission --are cooperating in Project Hire to help 200 Alaskan Eskimos and Indians become Government workers. Unskilled and uneducated natives will be hired for Department of Defense jobs. They will be trained on the job in clerical, typing, and helper occupations, and receive remedial education leading to permanent employment and career progression.

* * *

Concentrated Employment Programs in five cities were recently refunded through 1970. Nearly $11.6 million has been allocated to serve 1,700 persons in Rochester, N.Y., 650 in Texarkana, Tex., 830 in Richmond, Calif., 1,130 in Fresno, Calif., and 1,190 in New Orleans, La. CEP helps disadvantaged people in the worst areas of unemployment prepare for, find, and hold permanent jobs.

A·DOUGHTY·LADY· TURNS·50

By MARCIA HOVEY

On June 5, 1920 when President Woodrow Wilson signed into law a bill creating the Women's Bureau, the action was scarcely greeted with excessive fanfare. The front page of the WASHINGTON POST next day headlined news of the forthcoming Republican convention in Chicago, with speculation about various "dark horses"—Warren Harding was one—and a debate about whether Republican ranks would split over the question of support for the League of Nations. Also making the front pages were the suffragettes from 20 States who had gathered to picket the convention as a protest against "obstructive tactics" which they said had been used to defeat their amendment in Delaware.

As to more cheerful items, for those having trouble adjusting to Prohibition there was good news—not only of a softer ruling on "the manufacture of nonintoxicating cider and fruit juices for use in the home," but also of a new definition of "nonintoxicating." And for everyone there was a new William S. Hart movie, billed as "the greatest Western ever screened."

With so much ado about everything, only the determined reader that day could have found the line and a half of fine print noting that the President had signed "an act to establish a woman's bureau in the Department of Labor."

The debate in Congress had been equally calm. True, a Mr. Blanton of Texas used the occasion for a sweeping attack. "The Department of Labor," he charged, "is turning loose dangerous anarchists faster than the Department of Justice can apprehend them." And Mr. Merritt of Connecticut feared that the creation of another bureau would only "confuse the operation of the Government." "It is a bill to increase the confusion," he worried, "and not to help the women."

If few Congressmen shared that concern, perhaps none at all were really enthusiastic about the idea of women working. Congressman MacCrate seemed to express the prevailing sentiment: "Men may deeply regret the entrance of women into the commercial, industrial, and professional fields." They may even "long for the days when the spinning wheel helped to make the family income meet the family need," he admitted nostalgically. Nevertheless, he concluded, "We are face to face with a fact of life."

Thus on a tally of 256 yeas, 9 nays, and 162 not voting, Congress, with the air of a conservative men's club bowing to the inevitable, voted to establish "in the Department of Labor a bureau to be known as the Women's Bureau."

First Director Paid $5,000

It was to be directed by a woman whose annual compensation would be $5,000. An assistant director would receive $3,500. As for the rest of the staff, Sen. Reed Smoot helped to establish a salary ceiling, declaring, "No woman on earth is worth more than $2,000 a year."

The first director was Mary Anderson, a Swedish immigrant who had come up from the ranks. Six years as a houseworker at a beginning wage of $1.50 a week, 18 years as a shoe stitcher in a factory, and 8 years as a labor organizer had given her the kind of knowledge not found in books about the realities of labor conditions. The day had finally come when women had a protective organization of their own headed by a woman whose first interests were always those of the working woman.

The need had been apparent for some time. In 1906 three Chicago women—Mrs. Raymond Robins, Mary McDowell, and Jane Addams—appeared before a congressional committee to ask Congress to appropriate money to investigate the conditions under which women and children were working. It took 2 years—and pressure from assorted church, labor, and civic groups, and finally from President Theodore Roosevelt himself — before Congress authorized the study and appropriated the funds. The results, published over a 4-year period, ran to 19 volumes and documented in appalling detail the conditions under which "children were worked to death beside their parents."

The term "sweatshop" certainly described the prevailing conditions. Workers in the garment industry, for example, labored 10 to 12 hours a day. And a 14- to 16-hour day, without overtime, was not uncommon. The shops were often in filthy old buildings where windows were nailed shut and little light came in the grimy panes. The roar of the power machinery was deafening, the sanitary conditions and fire hazards unbelievably bad.

In her autobiography, Mary Anderson describes one of her tours of investigation. At a carborundum factory women toiled in a metallic dust so thick they could scarcely see the worker at the next

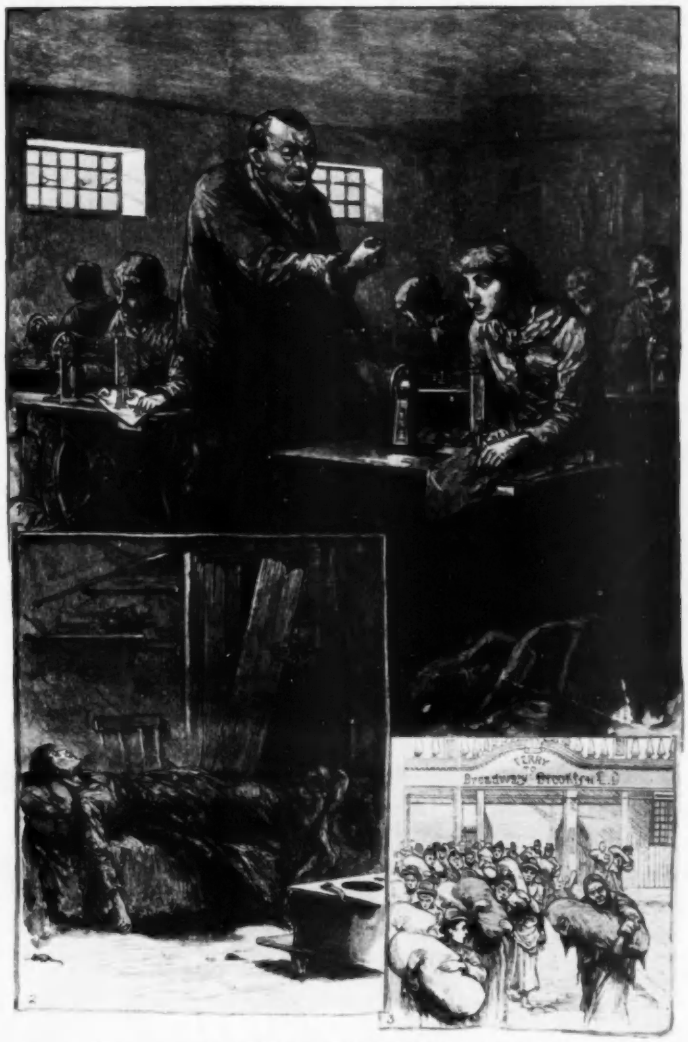
Mrs. Hovey is a member of the Women's Bureau information staff.

machine. In another plant women were manufacturing storage batteries, "a very perilous occupation for women because the effects of lead poisoning are especially serious for them, causing sterility, miscarriages, and death of babies during the first year of their lives."

The lives of women workers were bounded by the conditions of the "sweatshop," their earnings not even half those of men, their situation lacking any safeguards as to personal dignity or job tenure, their primary concerns safety from fire and machine hazards and "a chance to get home to their domestic tasks before complete exhaustion had overtaken them."

It would be pleasant to say that the reaction to the report was a furor of public indignation which set off a drive for immediate reform. In fact, however, no such thing occurred. The report had set the facts before the public; it had laid the basis for the protective legislation which would eventually follow. But there was very little immediate progress.

It took a national catastrophe to bring about real change. World War I did more for women than did years of congressional commissions and investigations. With millions of men suddenly in uniform, the Nation faced a severe manpower shortage which could only be filled by women workers. They worked in blast furnaces; manufactured high explosives, guns, armaments, steel plate; made railway, automobile, and airplane parts; worked in factories refining and smelting metals. In addition, thousands poured into the textile mills to produce uniforms for the Armed Forces, and additional thousands kept transport and other vital services functioning.



In 1888 Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper inveighed against the exploitation of women workers, many of them newly arrived immigrants, with these engravings made from sketches by a staff artist. The layout was entitled "The Female Slaves of New York—'Sweaters' and Their Victims," and the three panels were described as "1. Scene in a Sweater's Factory; 2. The End; 3. Scene at the Grand Street Ferry."

In short, war had made women essential to the labor force and it now became clear that something had to be done about the needs of women workers—of women war workers, anyway. The first protective agency for women was, in fact, a branch of the Ordnance Department and was set up to look after the needs of women manufacturing munitions and artillery. The Women's Bureau traces its ancestry directly back to the Women's Division of the Ordnance Department. In July 1918, this division was renamed the Woman in Industry Service and shifted to the Department of Labor; its chief tasks, however, were the same: To guard against the employment of women "under injurious conditions" and to develop ways of making "the most effective use of women's services in production for the war."

Agency Made Permanent

When the war ended, Congress had to decide whether to drop the temporary wartime agency, Woman in Industry, or make a civilian of her. With the passage of the bill on June 5, 1920, it took the latter course, providing a permanent status, a new name—the Women's Bureau—and a new purpose in life: "To formulate standards and policies which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment."

To accomplish all this, the Bureau was given a staff of 20, an annual appropriation of $30,000, and authority only to investigate and "from time to time to publish the results of these investigations." Yet with these meager resources the early Bureau made exhaustive studies of working conditions and set standards that have guided legislation on women's employment for half a century.

The techniques of investigation were established early. Detailed, factual data were collected and later analyzed by the

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LADY · *continued*

statistical division. Field agents supplemented this information with home interviews. Since women could not be interviewed while they were on the job and would not have been free to talk frankly, they had to be searched out in their homes, in the evenings and on Sundays. The home visits were, Mary Anderson admitted, the "toughest part" of the job, but they yielded information that would not have shown up in any records.

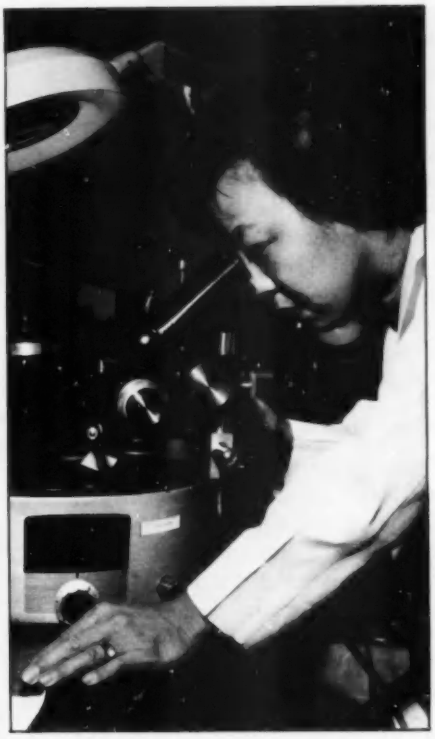
The Bureau published its findings, not merely "from time to time," but in a flood of reports documenting the conditions of working women in the sewing trades, the fish canning industry, the cotton mills, laundries, offices, department stores, and household employment. It did one of the first surveys of the barriers that handicapped Negro women. It studied industrial injuries, discrimination, and occupational hazards.

And it used the information to set standards. It began, of course, with the conditions that existed at that moment in history. Some of the recommendations have the quaint sound of a bygone era: "A clean, well-aired, well-lighted workroom with adequate provisions against excessive heat and cold; a chair for each woman; guarded machinery and other safety precautions; mechanical devices to prevent unnecessary and repeated lifting of heavy weights; protection against industrial poisons; pure and accessible drinking water, with individual cups; convenient washing facilities with hot and cold water . . ."

Other recommendations remind us how short is the distance we have traveled in 50 years. Among those standards set by the early Bureau and still not universally achieved are: Equal pay for equal work; a minimum wage rate; participation of workers in the enforcement of standards and the establishment of good working conditions; an end to discrimination against women in hiring; and the appointment of more women to supervisory positions.

Not all of the goals set by the early Bureau have been achieved, but at least they are no longer considered un-American. Surprising as it may seem today, in the twenties and thirties both Mary Anderson and the Women's Bureau were attacked for "trying to further Soviet and

Women today are moving in greater numbers into skilled trades and crafts and the professions. They are doing optometric research (upper right), construction crafts (top), and working in the printing trades.



'bolshevik' programs in the United States, especially by their endeavors to get Federal legislation for assistance to mothers and children."

The gains made by the working woman in the first decade of the Women's Bureau were seriously threatened by the disastrous effects of the great depression of the thirties. One of the most difficult principles to defend was that of equal pay for equal work. Most men did not realize that the substitution of women for men at lower rates of pay struck a real blow at men's wages, threatening to drag down all wages to the lower level. And with such severe unemployment, most women willingly accepted lower pay than men in order to have a job at all.

As the economic slump wore on, the right of women, especially married women, to hold a job at all became the fundamental issue. For all practical purposes, defense of the working woman in the thirties revolved around this principle. "Marital status as a basis for employment or dismissal is not sound," pleaded a Women's Bureau report in 1933. And again: "A woman who is discharged today because she has a husband to support

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her may find herself widowed or deserted tomorrow. As a principle, jobs should be awarded on qualifications."

All through those terrible years, women endured a kind of double discrimination—greater difficulty in finding a job, and constant danger of dismissal from it to make way for a man. The plight of women workers in the depression never seemed as spectacular as that of men. They seldom gathered in bread lines or participated in unemployment demonstrations. Yet their distress, though not as obvious, was every bit as real.

War Work Beckons Again

By 1939, though, experienced observers could see a change coming. "If the European hostilities cause an upturn in American business, there will be a considerable demand for labor," predicted the Bureau's annual report of 1939. For the Women's Bureau, what World War II demanded was in many ways a repeat performance—a struggle to regain ground everybody thought had been won for good. For Mary Anderson, it was startling "to find that another generation had grown up knowing practically nothing about . . . what women had done in World War I."

It did not take long for the next generation to prove itself. The Nation, desperately short of manpower, appealed again for "womanpower." And women responded, to an extent that dwarfed their participation in the earlier conflict. They joined the men in the armed services. They poured into war production plants; and millions, like Rosie the Riveter, performed jobs which had been done only by men, and performed them with skill. It was estimated that by 1945 the war had brought nearly 3 million women into the war manufacturing industries—a 460 percent increase.

By the end of the war, 17 million women workers had made some solid gains. They had performed well in a wide range of new occupations. They had proved their ability to the satisfaction of their employers and, apparently, of themselves. They had participated in the greater prosperity and improved standards of living which the war had brought to the American wage earner. Though some women stopped working after the war, 2 out of 3 wanted to stay on. For women workers, things have never really been the same since. The Women's Bureau had fostered, promoted, and developed the welfare of women wage earners to the point where they were working fewer hours per week for more money in safer surroundings.

Few of the old battles, though, were really over. True, the fight for shorter hours had been won. The early Bureau had aimed at a 48-hour week. By 1950 the 40-hour week was standard almost everywhere. The principle of a minimum wage had been pretty well accepted, too, though even today there exists a real need to extend coverage to new groups—household workers, for example. Equal pay for equal work has progressed from a Bureau ideal to a reality which has been accomplished in some fields and is making headway in others, though slowly. As for the 1920 goal of "more women in supervisory positions," the Bureau today is working harder than ever to bring down barriers against women in higher positions, but the job is far from done.

Bureau Broadens Interests

Still, it is not the same Women's Bureau that it started out to be. Where the early Bureau was restricted by the need for on-the-spot studies of women's employment, today it is able to broaden the range of its concerns. Among the Bureau's new interests is the establishment of day-care centers. While these centers are regarded initially as a way of assisting impoverished women to move from welfare rolls to payrolls, such centers would also help women of all economic classes find the freedom to work if they chose.

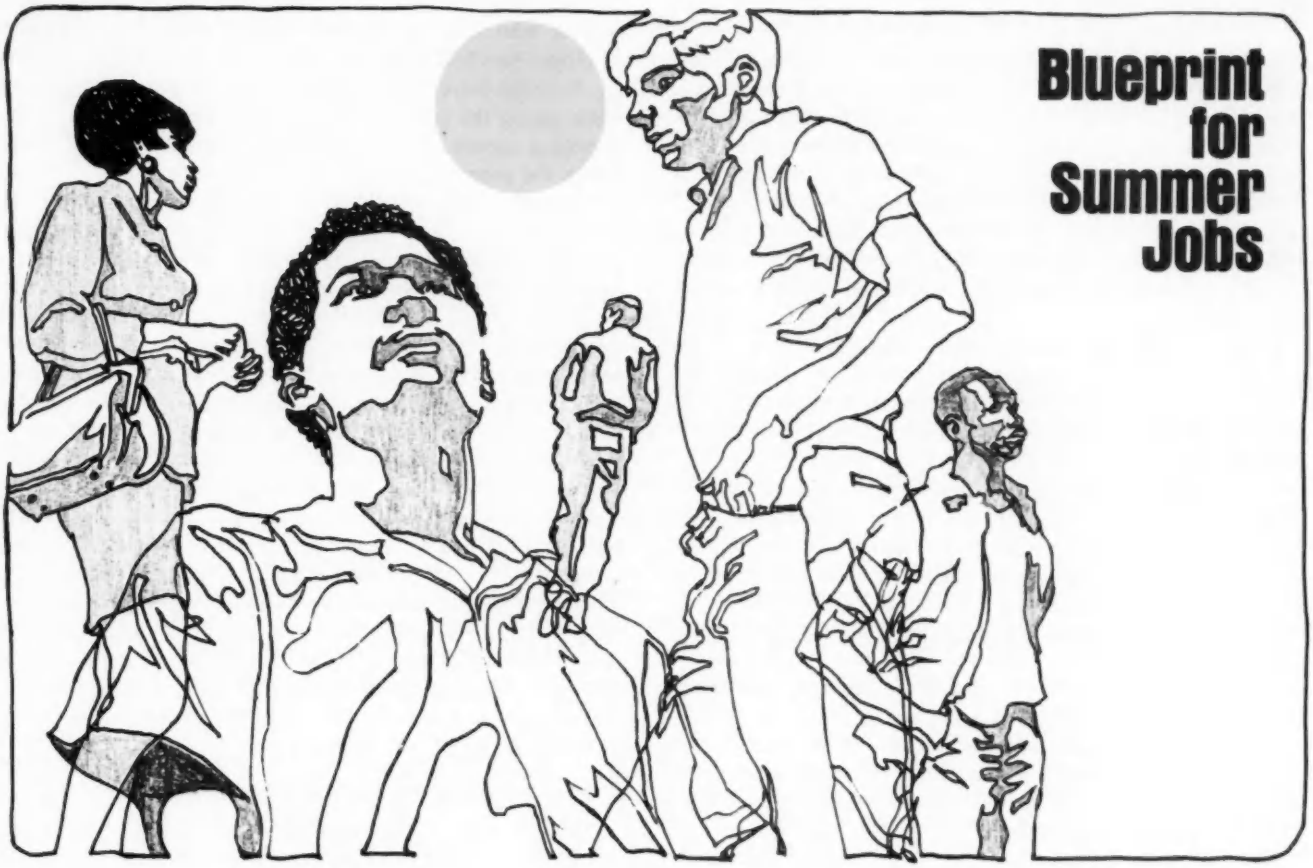
For the mature woman seeking ways to acquire job training and new skills, the Bureau is equipped to provide advice and guidance. It also encourages employers to try new ideas—such as hiring the mature worker, or using two part-time women to fill one job. An area of particular concern has been that of low-wage, disadvantaged groups, such as migrants and household workers, who do not have the protection of Federal or State legislation.

Shortly after the war, the Bureau initiated a series of special studies dealing with some of the occupations in which women had distinguished themselves during World War II—physical and occupational therapy, and medical technology, for example. This work goes on, with a series of pamphlets studying the opportunities for women in a broad range of occupations—from city planning to opthalmology, optometry, and conservation work.

The Bureau seeks, in every way possible, to open up new vocational possibilities for women and to combat whatever discrimination and prejudice still limit their freedom of choice or opportunity. The struggle is waged on many fronts: From high schools, where girls are often discouraged from taking those "difficult" math and science courses—though they are essential for technical training later; to vocational education, where girls are channeled into the same old secretarial courses, though some might prefer to become draftsmen, or computer programers, or mechanics; to situations where employers refuse to give girls on-the-job training because they might marry and quit work; to colleges, where such subjects as business administration are considered unsuitable for women; to graduate schools which have, apparently through the quota system, guaranteed that women will not make up more than 7 percent of the Nation's doctors, or 3 percent of the lawyers, or 1 percent of the engineers; to all the businesses and professions which set invisible ceilings on rank and salary beyond which they do not want women to go.

New Directions Explored

And so it is that the Women's Bureau, now in her 50th year, still keeps a matronly eye on the employment conditions, the civil and political rights, and the opportunities of 30 million women workers. With half a century of achievement behind her, she is by no means ready to retire. In fact, under the leadership of her new director, Elizabeth Duncan Koontz, she is finding new directions. The Women's Bureau is exploring new relationships with the Nation's schools, teachers, and counselors; has put new emphasis on work with such disadvantaged women as household workers; and has developed new international ties. Fifty years old the Women's Bureau may be, but she has never looked so good nor had so many things to do. □



Blueprint for Summer Jobs

For several years now, cities throughout the Nation have been conducting summer job programs for youngsters. Some have been successful, others have flopped.

What is required for a good campaign?

St. Louis University may have come up with the answers. Its Center for Urban Programs has identified what it believes to be the elements of success after a close examination of the shortcomings and achievements of St. Louis' 1968 summer campaign, and the 1969 programs in St. Louis, Hartford (Conn.), and Phoenix. The result is a "Summer Youth Employment Guide," which describes step by step how to set up a summer job program. (The study was financed by Manpower Administration Experimental and Demonstration funds.)

To begin with, a strong program needs an early start. Every source of job opportunities must be tapped. And vigorous action is needed by four cooperating organizations:

- The schools,
- The State employment service,
- The operating agency (the YMCA was used in St. Louis), and
- The job pledging organization (preferably the local chapter of the National Alliance of Businessmen if there is one).

The overall operating agency does not have to be the YMCA as it was in St. Louis. But any agency should, like the Y, meet the criteria necessary for success: Experience with large youth programs; access to capable summer staff; a good knowledge of the community; and the ability to expand to meet the demands of special summer programs.

The aid of other organizations in the community obviously is needed. Business and government must make summer jobs available. Unions have to be willing to set aside clauses in labor agreements that interfere with companies wanting to help. Certain Federal agencies and local community action agencies may help with money and expertise.

As a first step, the guide recommends setting up a Summer Youth Employment Board. Local organizations helping to run the program should be represented and so should the general public. This board, headed by a chairman who acts as contact man and convener, must organize the summer program and coordinate it with other job programs in the city.

The board's role is crucial in the beginning because it determines which agency does what. The board decides, for example, if the local YMCA can handle the operating agency's job, or whether some other local organization is better equipped.

The board also has to find the necessary money. Government is one source, private foundations are another. Businessmen also may want to contribute. And finally there are the basic policy decisions to be made: What is the target population? What priorities should be used in making job referrals? And what supportive services should be provided?

Summer Jobs *continued*

Usually the target population is poverty area youth. One of the first policy decisions of the board involves a choice between aiming the program at youth on summer vacation from school or at area youngsters who are school dropouts. The guide notes that in-schoolers are more likely to make a favorable impression on businessmen hiring minority youngsters for the first time. However, communities which have had similar summer job programs in the past are encouraged to serve dropouts if year-round programs for them are in short supply.

After the youths are enrolled, the poorest should be referred to jobs first, the guide suggests. Next come seniors, juniors, and sophomores, in that order. The guide recommends males be given preference over females, and that the oldest youths be taken first.

The services the young participants receive are not as far-ranging as those for the hard-core disadvantaged, but are more complete than those usually available to summer job-seekers. Recruitment is done at the schools. Though the program cannot guarantee work for everyone, the guide calls for heavy emphasis on job development, referral, and placement. To assure that youngsters make the best possible impression on prospective employers, all should be required to attend prejob orientation sessions. After the young people are hired, job coaches (if the program can afford them) should keep in touch with them during the summer, preferably at work, to help with any problems, personal or otherwise, that might interfere with job performance.

The operating agency coordinates the overall effort and makes sure that the board's policies are translated into effective action. One of its first duties is to conduct, and select the trainers for, the prejob orientation sessions. Some of these trainers may be teachers, but it is not recommended that they be used exclusively. Many students are too inhibited in the presence of teachers to talk to them freely, and frank discussion is necessary. College students from target neighborhoods make effective trainers, as do other youth with work experience and personnel men from private business.

Many of the students will be working for the first time and proper orientation is considered a must to help guarantee their success on the job. Generally, the trainers instruct them about pay, job applications and interviews, how to handle their money, employer-employee responsibilities, equal opportunities, union affairs, and safety and performance on the job. The guide includes a suggested program for orientation of youth.

The operating agency also hires and trains the job coaches, (or troubleshooters), if funding permits. Ideally, the job coaches should be able to visit and counsel the young workers on the job.

Job coaches must have the maturity to deal with employers as well as the ability to establish rapport with the youth in the program. Men and women 20 to 30 years old whose backgrounds are similar to the youngsters' are recommended by the guide. Negro college students on summer vacation are good prospects.

The coaches are the operating agency's main contact with both the employer and the youth. They may intercede for a student who feels he is being treated unfairly, or help an employer handle a youngster who misses work without calling in. Each employer and student worker is contacted at least twice during the summer. The coaches' weekly reports to the operating agency are the raw data for evaluating and monitoring the program.

Most of the housekeeping chores should be handled by the operating agency. Its staff keeps records, coordinates publicity, makes sure all job pledges are honored and all jobs filled. If there are more youths than jobs, coaches can be assigned to go out and find more openings. The operating agency should produce a weekly progress report and a final report with statistical data on the youth served. All youngsters should be encouraged to return to school and the operating agency should try to persuade employers to retain students returning to school in part-time work and to offer permanent jobs to those who have graduated.

The responsibilities of the schools, the employment service, and the job pledging organization are narrower than the operating agency's but necessary to the program's success. The job pledging organization—the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB) in the two St. Louis programs—must find the jobs. The NAB is especially well suited to this task because of its experience in matching the hard-core unemployed with jobs in private industry under the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program.

Publicity Needed on Job Pledges

The first step to insure success in the critical area of job pledging is to make sure the solicitors (often executives "on loan" from area companies) are fully committed. Therefore, the guide suggests that the solicitors should be executives of companies fully prepared to hire some of the youth themselves and otherwise help out in the program. The job pledging organization should back up the solicitors with a sophisticated publicity campaign conducted by radio, television, and newspapers, as well as any other media available.

The job pledging unit's responsibility does not end here. Its volunteers must make sure that the personnel people in a pledging company know that a pledge has been made so there will be no slip-ups when the youngsters report for duty. It also must make sure that the State employment service and the operating agency get accurate lists of job pledges so they can do the necessary followup work.

Although job pledging is not a particularly complex task, it does require planning and preparation. The guide recommends that it be conducted along the lines of United Fund drives. The campaign for summer pledges must be clearly distinguished from any other job pledging appeal even if this means that the pledging organization must organize a separate staff. The campaign should begin with a widely publicized kickoff meeting, with all agencies involved and all area employers invited. To give the effort momentum, job solicitors should secure advance pledges from large employers, both private and public, which can be announced at the kickoff meeting.

The operating agency is responsible for recruitment and orientation and the employment service for referral. They

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can carry out these assignments with considerable ease if the school system cooperates fully. It is far easier to assemble the youngsters in their schools for these necessary services than to have them report to the offices of the operating agency or employment service.

The operating agency should explain the program at assembly meetings held at the target high schools after school and on Saturday. Actual registration for the program should be handled in school homerooms. It should be stressed that students will be referred to jobs, with no guarantee of employment.

Interviews with students about job referrals also may be held after school or on Saturday. The referral process is simplified considerably if, where necessary, the school permits students to be excused from classes for part of a day for their job interviews at the companies.

The guide assigns a fairly circumscribed role in the summer job program to the employment service. The reason is that the employment service has a heavy year-round workload, and the guide suggests that the day-to-day operation of a summer job program should be handled by an organization that can devote its full attention to the effort.

Nevertheless, the employment service contribution is vital. Its task is the traditional one of job placement. It converts job pledges into job orders, interviews the youngsters, and refers them to employers.

To handle this most effectively, the guide recommends that the employment service establishes a special or separate staff guided by the philosophy that the students' needs are as important as the employers'. This shift away from employer-centered operations should not be difficult since the employment service is dealing only with employers who have made job pledges.

The job solicitors forward pledges to the employment service for conversion into job orders. The employment service calls the employers to nail down the answers to pertinent questions: What kind of jobs are offered? How many youngsters are needed? Where is the work site? Where should candidates report for job interviews? How much do the jobs pay? These specifications should be obtained within 1 week of receipt of a job pledge.

Firms Want Choice of Applicants

Employment service staffers, of course, conduct the referral interviews. They discuss the specific job with the youth and tell him or her where the company is located, how to get there, the kind of work, the rate of pay, and when and to whom to report for the job interview. Then the employment service forwards the referral information to the operating agency for followup activities.

When possible, the guide suggests that the referral interview by the employment service and the job interview by the employer be held at the same time and in the same place—at the employment service office, for example, or the school. It also suggests that more than one youth be referred for each job, since many private companies will want a choice in hiring.

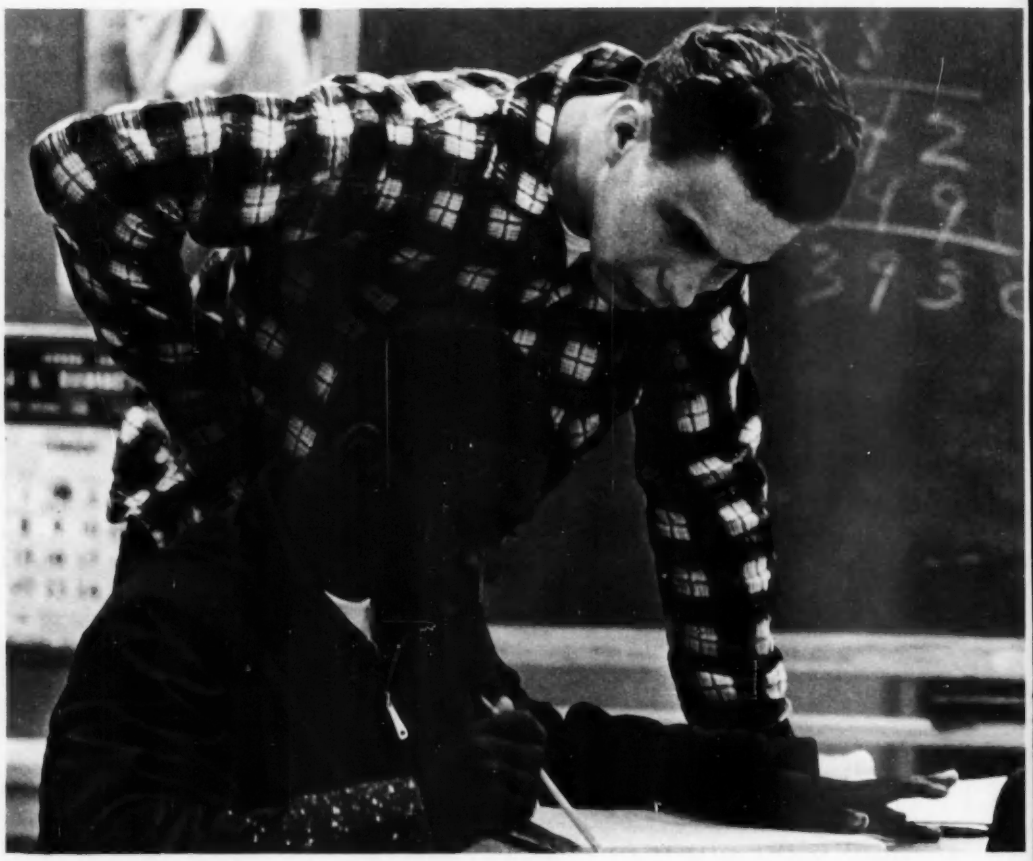
The guide's overall schedule allows ample time for the project to unfold in the most natural and effective way. After the board is established, a chairman chosen, and policy agreed on, each agency is assigned its duties and is thoroughly briefed on all aspects of the program. The solicitors seek advance job pledges, and the staffs of the operating agency and the employment service begin their preliminary tasks. The job-pledging campaign is kicked off, students are recruited, and preparations are made for prejob orientations. All this should be accomplished by the end of March.

In April, the employment service receives job pledges and converts them into job orders. The students receive prejob orientation, and the operating agency begins to recruit summer staff.

In May, the youth are referred to the employers for job interviews. Certain followup activities are carried out by the operating agency and the employment service. About 2 weeks before the youngsters begin work, all organizations involved in the program meet to identify problems and work out solutions.

In June, the boys and girls report for work. □

Schools Study Job Corps Lessons



By JOAN WILLIAMS

When the Job Corps went into operation 5 years ago, a new mode of education quietly took its place in America.

The Job Corps mandate from Congress called for establishment of a new program to increase the employability of the most seriously disadvantaged American youth. To fulfill this goal, Job Corps had to compensate young men and women, aged 16 through 21, for a lifetime of social, economic, and educational deprivation.

This meant teaching much more than job skills. Health habits had to be improved, language problems overcome, leadership responsibilities learned. Corpsmen had to be taught the meaning of responsibility and the importance of good work habits, regular hours, and daily exercise. They had to be shown how to cope with personal problems, how to explore leisure-time interests, and many other skills.

Miss Williams is a member of the Manpower Administration information staff.

But at the heart of Job Corps training was a program of general education. Because traditional learning techniques of the public schools had not worked and would not work with these young people, a new system of education had to be designed. Job Corps set about to create a style of learning different from any the trainees had known in public school life.

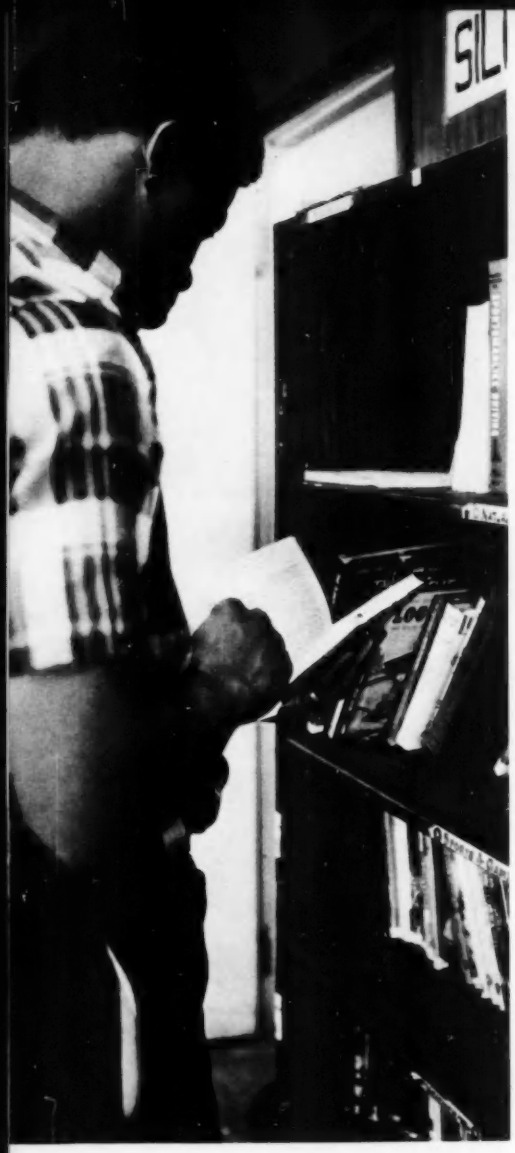
The system would be highly individualized, highly personalized. Materials would be self-instructional and geared to the student's interest as well as to his academic ability. There would be no surprise tests, no quickie quizzes, no competition with classmates. There would be no grades, therefore no humiliation of failing.

The student would know his goals and move toward them at his own pace. Instead of being punished for failures, he would be rewarded for achievements. The atmosphere would be adult, and students would be treated as adults. There would be intensive counseling, not just in academics but in living with others, too.

Finally, teachers would be people sympathetic to the unique problems of the unskilled, undereducated school dropout. And teachers would have time —to listen, to teach, to care.

This shaping of education according to human needs worked well. Young men and women who entered Job Corps unable to read or write or calculate learned quickly. Corps members were registering gains of 1.5 grades in reading for every 10 months, as opposed to 0.6 grade levels for the average deprived youth in school. Comparable gains were being made in mathematics. Some students jumped half a dozen years in the space of months. Success in the classroom showed in the progress Corpsmen made in their job training. Across the country, Job Corps-trained youth were getting and holding a variety of jobs that once were considered beyond their capabilities.

These accomplishments did not go unnoticed by people on the "outside." Nearly 1 million students drop out of public schools every year. In 1967, several well known school administrators suggested that the Job Corps education system



might help to slow the steady premature exodus of students out of public schools.

During the 1967-68 school year, 21 school systems participated in a pilot study using the Job Corps reading and mathematics programs in special courses for slow students. The study showed that, on the average, a student raised his reading level one full grade in 42 hours of study. In the mathematics program, he took only 36 hours of study to raise his math level one full grade. An Omaha school discovered that "slow" students in the pilot group were learning at twice the rate of students in regular classes.

Today, the Job Corps education program is being used by the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration and in other youth training programs it administers and in the Armed Forces, and it soon may be implemented in adult basic education classes across the country. Most important, it is being applied where it is most needed—in America's public schools.

- School systems in Seattle, Minneapolis, Akron, Chicago, Newark, Simi Valley (Calif.), Detroit, and Denver have adopted the Job Corps system to salvage their own potential dropouts.
- The Milwaukee school system enrolls potential dropouts in the nearby Blackwell Job Corps Center, and gives them regular high school credits for educational gains accomplished during Job Corps training.
- Some 270 public school systems in 48 States have sent almost 400 of their instructors to teach in Job Corps centers, so they may learn new methods of helping potential dropouts and then return home to initiate new programs for underachievers in their own school districts.
- The U.S. Air Force is using the Job Corps reading program to improve the skills of airmen who are below the sixth grade level in reading.
- Student teachers are earning college credits by practice teaching in Job Corps centers. Twenty-eight State certification offices have agreed to accept student teaching experience in Job Corps for all or part of State certification requirements.
- The U.S. Office of Education recently launched a unique experiment in learning by contracting with an education technology firm to improve the quality of instruction in Texarkana, a city which straddles the Arkansas-Texas border. The firm, Dorsett Education Systems, agreed to bring lagging students up to normal grades at a given cost and in a given time —or pay a monetary penalty. Dorsett uses a combination of teaching machines and the Job Corps basic education program of reading, mathematics, language and study skills, and world of work.
- The Office of Education also is evaluating the Job Corps education program for possible use in the Nation's 3,500 adult basic education programs.

Job Corps materials and methods are designed to be used with youngsters who range from illiterate to those studying for the high school equivalency examination. Although each instructional program is relatively independent, adequate reading skills are essential to progress in all subjects.

When a Corpsman arrives at a Job Corps center, he is given a series of reading tests and placed in the beginning, intermediate, or advanced program. He then progresses as rapidly as his interest and ability permit. Fundamentals are stressed; students spend little or no time on creative writing. The goal is to bring all Corpsmen at least to the seventh grade reading level, which means they will be able to comprehend the average newspaper or magazine.

About 40 percent of the youngsters entering the Job Corps read below the fourth grade level. They are placed in the beginning program. Those who require it are given prereading instruction, where they are introduced to the letters of the alphabet and are taught initial sound-symbol relationships.

2,500 Reading Selections

The intermediate program is for those who read between the third and seventh grade levels. Intermediate students can choose from among 2,500 carefully graded reading selections, including short stories, essays, and nonfiction articles. Some were selected after careful screening of all available commercially published materials. Others were developed specifically for the Job Corps, to fill the void where nothing satisfactory existed. All were incorporated into a "systems approach." That is, the material was placed at the appropriate level in the Job Corps system regardless of the publishers' designation of its relative difficulty. The developers of the material specifically prepared for the Job Corps were permitted to market it commercially, and within a year more than 2,000 school systems bought it for use in their remedial reading programs.

The intermediate student is free to choose any selection he wishes at his specific reading level. Each time he finishes an assignment he tests himself through a comprehension check built into the materials. Assignments are short so the student can experience success at frequent intervals. The student keeps his own records and scores. The instructor personally administers each fifth comprehension

check, and tests the student's performance in oral reading.

The advanced program, consisting of vocational and high interest library materials, develops the reading skills of Corpsmen from approximately the seventh grade to advanced high school levels. Advanced students often are assigned to help instructors working with nonreaders.

To advance its goal of individualizing instruction, Job Corps makes extensive use of films, filmstrips, recordings, and television. Reading pacers are used for speed drills and audio recorders for speaking and listening exercises.

Job Corps teachers believe that the motivation of students is greatly enhanced by the opportunity they are given to advance on an individual basis. The teacher issues no classroom marks; none are necessary. Each student evaluates himself and decides when he is ready for the next unit of work. Instead of seeing reading as a chore, he takes pride in his accomplishments, knowing full well the importance of developing his reading skills as a necessary step toward getting and keeping a good job.

Work Attitudes Developed

The same practical emphasis holds true in the mathematics, language and study skills, and world of work programs of the Job Corps. After diagnostic tests in math pinpoint the student's weaknesses, he is given materials designed to teach him the computational skills and concepts he will need to perform on the job and manage his personal finances. Similarly, he is helped to develop his communications skills through self-instructional texts, often work-related. Word usage, composition, spelling, handwriting, and the use of reference works, maps, and charts—these are the components of a survival kit for the disadvantaged youth in modern American society.

But the Corpsman must know how to use the survival kit. And this is the role of the world of work, or prevocational curriculum. Job Corps students are helped to develop positive attitudes toward work. They learn the importance of regular hours and regular attendance on the job. They learn to fill out job application forms and how to buy wisely and budget their money.

The Job Corps education program has undergone continual evaluation and revision. For example, one new program emerged from the realization that without a high school diploma many Corpsmen could not get jobs, even when their reading level was beyond that of high school graduates. With the cooperation of the American Council on Education, materials were developed to help Corpsmen prepare for the high school equivalency test, an important step in opening job possibilities for them.

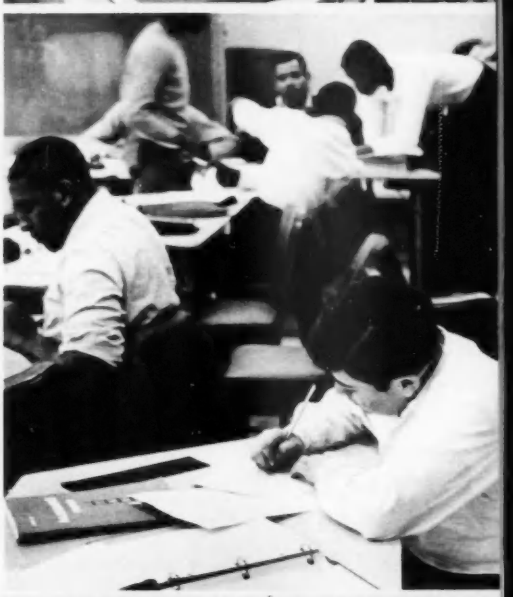
The first successful cooperative venture between Job Corps and the public schools was launched in the summer of 1966 when the National Education Association and Job Corps began an experiment known as Project Interchange.

Under the program, public school teachers on leave from their regular jobs spend from 2 months to a year teaching and learning in Job Corps centers. Then they return to their home school districts to put into practice new methods of teaching and dealing with disadvantaged students. Since its inception, almost 400 teachers from 270 school systems have taken part in Project Interchange at an estimated cost of $2.6 million in Job Corps funds.

Seattle's experience, which probably comes closer than any other Project Interchange program to duplicating the Job Corps' educational philosophy and methods, illustrates how the Job Corps system can be applied in the public school environment.

After spending the 1966-67 school year teaching in a Job Corps center, six Seattle teachers went home to establish the Seattle Career Planning Center, which offers potential high school dropouts instruction virtually identical to that found in the Job Corps. The only difference is that the Seattle students live at home rather than at a residential center.

Classes are held in a separate facility in an upper middle class residential area. The relaxed atmosphere is unlike the traditional classroom structure. Students receive credits for their work, just as they would in regular high school classes.



Young men from any Seattle high school are eligible to enroll.

All sorts of compromises—early dismissals from class, late arrivals for work, alternate days for work and study—are arranged so that each student finds the schedule best suited for him. A student may take some classes at his high school and some at the center. Flexibility is the keyword.

Part-time jobs obtained through the work experience program give the students an extra incentive for remaining at the center and making progress. The basic education program and the vocational program are coordinated to show the relevance between education and holding a job.

In its first year—1967-68—the Career Planning Center had an enrollment of 61. The average student, on entry, was reading slightly above the fifth grade level (5.3 to be exact). At the end of less than a full year, he had reached the seventh grade level. Math achievement was even more marked—going up 5.9 grades, from 3.9 to 9.8. Five young men received their high school diplomas that year. All but nine of the students made some progress.

The following year, comparable gains were made and seven students graduated with their regular high school class. Of a total enrollment of 150, only 25 withdrew: Six left to take jobs, one joined the Navy, one entered the Job Corps, and four left the city. The remaining 13 dropped out of school and are either unemployed or unaccounted for.

This school year the center is working with 125 young men ranging in age from 14 to 19, with the heaviest enrollment in the 14-15 age bracket.

"The dropout pattern begins to show heavily in the age 14-15 group," said Robert Nelson, coordinator of instruction for Seattle secondary schools. "In the conventional school, attendance for these students is poor. Many are retarded in reading, arithmetic, and spelling and, consequently, are overwhelmed by feelings of frustration and hopelessness. It is also a time when boys especially need paying jobs and when they need to learn how to work. Discipline problems mount. Extra burdens are placed upon teachers and administrators. Conventional schools simply cannot or have not offered the programs, the total environment, and incentive to stay in school."

Nelson believes the different system offered by the Career Planning Center holds the solution. Forbes Bottomley, Seattle schools superintendent, agrees. "Like all large urban school systems, Seattle is having its problems," Bottomley said. "In attempting to solve these problems, we have tried everything. The only thing that has succeeded with our dropout population is the Job Corps approach."

As a result of Seattle's success, Minneapolis introduced the Job Corps system in 10 of its inner-city schools last September. Ten thousand junior and senior high school students are enrolled. "It's one of the most massive commitments ever made by the Minneapolis schools," said Wally Spolar, project administrator. "Seventy-five percent of our students need remedial reading."

Teachers Praise Project

National Education Association officials see Project Interchange as a way to improve substantially the quality and relevance of public education for Negro and other minority children and for poor white children. Speaking last year at a Project Interchange conference, Braulio Alonso, director of NEA's International Evaluations Division, said the teacher who returns to the classroom after working in the Job Corps "is a better, more understanding, and more highly motivated teacher" who can help other teachers "to see, to understand, to recognize that teachers can bring about the change that is so desperately needed" in public education for disadvantaged youngsters.

As for the public school teachers who have taken part in Project Interchange, most of them say the experience has made them better able to understand and to help potential dropouts.

"I was made aware of the profound needs of students who cannot survive public education," said one teacher.

A West Virginia teacher said: "This (Job Corps) method of instruction in the public school could serve the dual function of catching the weaknesses of the potential dropout as well as giving the exceptionally bright student the opportunity to go far beyond the point at which he usually is held when funneled into the average mass-directed curriculum followed by our conventional classrooms."

Another teacher described her feelings on a more personal level: "I feel I learned more than I gave. To be sitting beside a Corpsman, the same age as my daughter who is a college student, and be reading 'Am I an ant?' was enough to almost tear me apart at times. But when progress is made here, it is colossal progress."

The Air Force also has successfully adapted Job Corps teaching techniques. In October 1966, under Project 100,000, the Armed Forces lowered academic standards to admit recruits who read below the sixth grade level. Each branch of the service set about devising a remedial reading program. The Air Force chose the Job Corps reading program.

The Air Force seeks to bring airmen up to the sixth grade reading level in 65 training days. The men spend half their time in basic military training and the other half—a total of 260 hours—is allowed for developing reading skills.

The program began 2 years ago at Lackland Air Force Base, Tex., with a pilot study involving 82 airmen. Within an 8-week period of study (102 hours), high school graduates in Project 100,000 showed an average reading level increase of 2 years. Within an intensive 8-week period of study (120 hours), nonhigh school graduates showed an average increase of 1.5 years.

Col. John Etchemendy, commander of the 3720th Basic Military School at Lackland, explained that basic trainees are given a phonics examination immediately upon induction. He said many "fail miserably" and go right to basic reading.

Between January 1968 and November 1969, some 3,500 airmen enrolled in the Air Force reading program. All read below the sixth grade level; the average was fourth grade. Yet 64 percent had high school diplomas. Two had college degrees.

Col. Etchemendy said that 95 percent of these airmen have completed basic training with reading abilities at least as high as the sixth grade level, and that many have learned to read well above that. □

An Interviewer Discusses the First Hurdle

"Every day I sail in uncharted waters."

"... most of the old methods and rules don't apply."

Byrne Underhill says he knows how Christopher Columbus felt as he sailed across the Atlantic. "Every day," he says, "I sail in uncharted waters." He's referring to the challenging area of hiring "hard-core" people. Underhill is one of several placement counselors engaged in employment work at Eastman Kodak in Rochester, N.Y.

In the course of his daily work he meets many minority group people seeking meaningful places in industry. Many of those applying for entry-level jobs are unemployed or underemployed—many are under-educated. They have either walked off the streets into a personnel office or have been referred by inner-city agencies.

Underhill has little in common with these jobseekers. He is white and his background is rural, small-town America. Most of them are urban blacks; many are Spanish-speaking. They are not making it in the world of work and he is.

Some observers say the achievement-oriented middle class white American who has worked his own way up the job ladder is the person least fitted to deal with the problems of the disadvantaged. His attitude, so the argument goes, is: "I made it without any help. Why can't you?"

Whatever the validity of this view, it does not seem to apply to Underhill. Now 34, he has in 16 years worked his way up from a $47 a week apprentice to a salary well into the five-figure range. During these years, he attended the Rochester Institute of Technology at night and completed courses equivalent to 2 years of college. Yet he seems to have little trouble relating to the blacks and Puerto Ricans he places and he is firmly convinced they need and deserve special help to find and hold a job.

"There's no other recourse," he said. "You have to give them a break if they are to become a useful part of society. They're just not going to fit in if someone doesn't give them a helping hand. We as an industry have to accept this as a way to bring in people who, for whatever reasons, have been left out. It takes time. There's no magic potion yet that can make them successful."

"I've got no chart or guide that works every time," Underhill says. "What I have is the knowledge that I'm doing something in which most of the old methods and rules don't apply. I have to be patient, and tell it like it is. I think it is up to me to bring out the best in the guy I'm talking with—and understand the worst."

The importance of what Underhill does was expressed by one young man who walked into his office for an interview and said, "You're it, baby. My chance either starts or ends here."

That young man would have no chance, Underhill feels, "if the interviewer is unable to understand the ongoing problems of the disadvantaged. The hard-core applicant often will fall short of normal industrial requirements, and the use of conventional interview methods would produce unsatisfactory results in most such cases."

Things the normal job applicant takes in stride—long waits in employment offices, prescreening by a receptionist, complicated appraisal systems, inability to complete an application form and hurried,

"You're it, baby. My chance either starts or ends here."

"pat-answer" interviews—can become hangups for the disadvantaged.

"We have eliminated those situations where possible," Underhill says. Long waits have been eliminated by taking applications on an appointment basis. All applicants are interviewed so there is no prescreening problem. Testing is not a major hurdle since the company hardly ever tests.

"One hangup can become an asset," Underhill points out. "When you have an applicant who cannot fill out his employment form, the interviewer naturally has to help. In the time spent helping to complete it, the rapport necessary for a good interview can be established."

One of the biggest forward steps is in allowing adequate time for every applicant. An interview with a disadvantaged person can take up to an hour.

The patient, understanding approach Underhill advocates has paid off for many applicants. Nearly 700 minority people have been hired and have gone into special training programs at Kodak to upgrade their technical and communication skills in the last 3 years.

Underhill says that Rochester Jobs Incorporated has been important in the progress shown. This community-wide organization coordinates the efforts of local employers and inner-city agencies seeking to find jobs for the hard core.

"I don't want to leave the impression we have all the answers," Underhill emphasizes. He points out that up to 60,000 people a year seek jobs at Kodak and there are openings for only a small percentage of that number.

Byrne Underhill at work.

Interviewer
continued

"I never thought I'd be so involved as now."

Underhill has found six areas of potential problems about which the interviewer should be aware if he is to do his best job:

- Direct questioning. Avoid a string of questions, for this will usually unnerve an applicant and put him on guard. Credit investigators or policemen often use a direct line of questioning, so most disadvantaged people consider this a method for rejecting, penalizing, or punishing them.
- Personal questioning. "Hard-core" applicants may resent questions about personal life, parents, domestic problems, marital status, and so on. They see little, if any, relationship between this type of information and how they will perform on the job.
- Inattention to details. Often information is missing from applications, such as school attendance, dates of employment, length of time working, and references. This type of information may have been passed over in filling out an application because the applicant doesn't understand its importance. The interviewer should try to minimize the embarrassment entailed in correcting such omissions.
- Language. The words, expressions, and speech patterns of the ghetto poor are unfamiliar to many interviewers. In turn, the applicant often has difficulty understanding the interviewer. Obviously, Spanish-speaking people have a special problem.
- Appearance and dress. Unconventionalities in dress, hairstyle, and grooming by jobseekers will many times influence an interviewer, but unless they are safety or health hazards, he should discount this factor as much as he can.
- Arrest records. Hard-core applicants are sensitive and fearful about divulging information regarding arrest records.

Even with the problems in these six areas, Underhill contends you can get an honest answer to any question you may ask, "provided you're willing to show the applicant how it ties in with a job before he is asked for an answer."

Underhill is not altogether a novice in dealing with the disadvantaged. Though he now lives in a Rochester suburb with his wife and two children, he is a native of Elba, N.Y. (population 600 "including cattle and chickens") where he spent the first 21 years of his life. His parents were people of modest means. For many years his dad was a farmer and later a die repairman.

His first experience with minorities came during his high school years. Virtually the only work available in his native region of New York State is farming and the crops are mainly garden vegetables. These crops were harvested by migrant laborers, mostly Puerto Ricans and Negroes. He worked with them nights and weekends and in the summer.

"I'd go down to Rochester and hire them and truck them to the fields. I say hire, but all I had to do was to go to where they assembled, name the rate, and throw down the tailgate. I worked with them in the fields and got to know them a bit. But I never thought I'd be so involved as now."

Underhill says that there is one thing he is searching for as he interviews—the often-hidden desire to work, to get ahead if given a chance. In a word, motivation. Yet, he admits he cannot answer how this is measured during an interview.

"Sometimes it is the most minute fragment of hope or yearning in the man's voice."

"Sometimes it is the most minute fragment of hope or yearning in the man's voice," he said. "We have

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". . . hostility is most often a cover-up for sadness, frustration, or a sense of futility arising from repeated failure."

". . . we need a whole man on the job all of the time."

"He said it straight to me and I should've listened."

accepted people who never held a steady job—people who spent years floating from job to job—car washing, dishwashing, bus boy, general labor, and so on."

"We have taken men with prison records and people who cannot function at primary grade levels in reading ability or arithmetic." Training in basic communications skills is given to those who need it.

Underhill does not automatically reject people who demonstrate a hostile attitude. "The first question I ask myself is 'Why does he react in a hostile manner?' There aren't many plain antagonistic, adverse, or totally unfriendly applicants taking the time to look for work. I have found that the hostility is most often a cover-up for sadness, frustration, or a sense of futility arising from repeated failure."

Underhill uses many of the usual sources of additional information on an applicant—credit checks, school and prison records, employment data, and, most frequently, the personal reference.

"This information is not only helpful in placements," he points out, "but also aids us in counseling the individual should he turn up with a problem at a later date."

Honesty is the one word, Underhill feels, that best describes the key to successful interviewing. "By honesty I mean frankness, sincerity, patience, and straight talk. All of these factors combine to build the impression that the interviewer cares and is trying to do the best he can for the applicant.

"Honesty will do more for you and your company in the minds of hard-core people than anything else. This is true, both with those you hire and those you turn down. Tell everyone you hire that the job will be no picnic, that it isn't a gift. Tell them they must put out and perform, but that they will be given every chance.

"There are cases when you hire a man who has a known poor record. You review his record with him. He'll argue with you about it without knowing that you have decided to hire him. Your honesty tells him in very plain language that he must perform to keep his job, that you will not tolerate tardiness or absenteeism. If you weren't honest, he might have felt he could backslide."

When a man is hired who has not told the truth on his employment application, the interviewer should tell him that this could have been cause for rejection, according to Underhill. "Tell him you are going to hire him because he is otherwise a good candidate, that he must prove that he wants the job and is prepared to work. Your sincerity prepares this applicant for his new job."

When Underhill is unable to work out a suitable placement for an applicant, he tells him as soon as possible, tells him why, and tells him what can be done to reverse this decision.

He advises honesty even if it could mean disagreement or an argument. "In this case we usually are dealing with an individual who has a long record of absenteeism or tardiness, but there is usually something in how he comes across in the interview that makes us feel we want to hire him. I tell him that we need a whole man on the job all of the time. He usually argues that his bad attendance record in the past was unavoidable. With honesty, I tell him he has to change that, that he won't be coddled, and we hope things move upward from there."

The sting in Underhill's honesty is mitigated by his demonstrated concern for the people he hires, a concern that goes well beyond business hours. The men often turn to him for help in getting out of personal scrapes. One story, told by his professional associates, involves a man he had hired who got into a quarrel with a neighbor. She accused him of stealing her television and described his own set as the missing article to the police. He was arrested, booked, and charged. He appealed to Underhill for help. Underhill called the police, cited the man's good work record and his value as a Kodak employee. He made such a strong case that the man was released and went back to work, and the charges were dropped.

Another of Underhill's disadvantaged hires came home one day to find that a fast-talking salesman had persuaded his wife to buy a set of encyclopedias worth several hundred dollars. He simply could not afford it. Underhill called the company and explained that its over-zealous salesman had taken advantage of a young, inexperienced ghetto girl. The company apologized, cancelled the contract, and refunded the down payment.

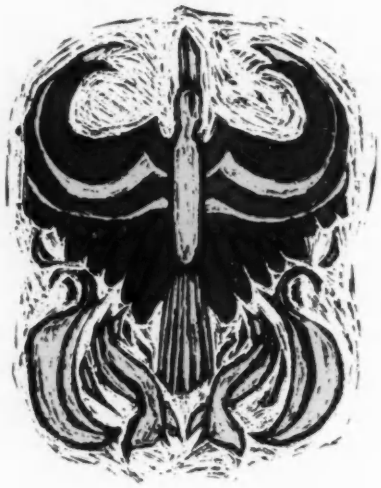
A counselor with the New York State Employment Service observed that Underhill "has an outstanding grasp of the problem and a sincere concern to do what he can to help and hire those he sees."

An applicant who was turned down said, "He tells it like it is. That you have to buy."

"He said it straight to me and I should've listened," said a man who was hired and later fired for absenteeism. "He listened to me. I know what I have to do to come back and I'm going to try." □

PHOENIX ON 14TH STREET

By WILLIAM COLE



Upper Fourteenth Street in Washington, D.C. is a 10-minute drive from the White House, but few visitors to the Nation's Capital go there these days. Unless you are a sociologist, a student of urban renewal, racial riots, and tensions, or the like, there is no attraction in the gutted blackened stores that line this once busy thoroughfare. Framed by broken brick and twisted steel, posters on boarded windows remind you not of the merchandise they hawk but of the merchants, black as well as white—no one was spared in the holocaust that followed the assassination of Martin Luther King in April 1968—who fled the area, never to return.

"I lost everything I had," a former stationery store owner said, pointing to a pile of rubble under a crumbled roof. "I'm a black man but that didn't help. Twenty-two years I slaved here, 6 days a week, 14 hours a day. A can of gasoline, a match, and it all went up in flames. 'Why me?' I kept yelling at them, until I choked on the smoke."

"What's your name?"

"What's the difference what's my name?"

"Couldn't you get a loan and start again?"

"What for? Who says it won't happen again? I did my best business at night. Who, now, around here is crazy enough to go out at night?"

Here and there, a small store of the "Mom and Pop" variety has reopened, but the meager investment that has been made in equipment and merchandise reflects not only the financial status of the owners but their fears of future riots and their skepticism as to official urban renewal plans.

Near the corner of Park Road, however, there is an oasis in the arid landscape—a sparkling new F. W. Woolworth store. Shining plate-glass windows, glazed brown brick and chrome, a splash of color. The store reopened in November 1969 on the same site occupied by the old Woolworth store that was completely burned out in the 1968 riots. Business has been good. Except for the fact that all the sales personnel and virtually all the customers are Negroes, things look very much the same as in Woolworth's stores in the most affluent parts of town.

Neighborhood residents are happy to have the store back in business. The biggest factor is convenience, the ability to shop near home again. "For a year and a half we had nothing like this around here, nothing," said one customer, as she browsed through the beauty care section, comparing two lipsticks. "I had to do all my shopping and most of my mother's shopping during lunchtime down where I work."

"I used to have to go downtown or over to Connecticut Avenue for a spool of thread," said one mother, in the midst of pursuing two little boys in snowsuits who ran down the aisle clutching toys. She collared the children and pried the playthings from their hands. "Put those back. What do you think I am, a millionaire?"

"It was the same for all of us. Sixty cents bus fare, round trip, for a 10-cent item, and all the time it took. Why, one woman in front of me at the checkout counter was so happy when this store first opened that she gave the cashier a $10 bill for a $5.84 purchase and told her to keep the change."

The employees naturally are pleased at the reopening of the store; it provides over 60 badly needed jobs for residents of the area.

"Almost all of our employees live in the neighborhood, close by," said Viola Miller, head of personnel for the store. "That's company policy. Only a few, six or seven, worked in the old store. When that was burned down, the personnel had to get other jobs." Formerly a salesgirl with Woolworth, Mrs. Miller worked her way up to her present position via the company's training program.

"I was working in a store down the street," said Ollee Tenney, as she took inventory with her friend and coworker, Margaret Richardson. "I lost my job when it was destroyed in the riots. That store didn't come back. I didn't get another job until Woolworth did." Both she and Miss Richardson, who worked in the old store for 5 years, think the new store is a big improvement. "We're all from around here and know each other; it's real friendly," Miss Tenney said. "Just like it's a

Mr. Cole is a freelance writer.

family store for the customers, it's kind of like a family store for the people who work here."

Comanager D. C. Anderson, the only white employee, said the annual payroll of the store, "almost all of which will remain in the Fourteenth Street area, should total about $250,000.

"Woolworth's decision to reopen this new store with the most modern fixtures —we occupy over 50,000 square feet of building area—reflects a company-wide policy of bringing to the black communities the same quality of facilities, service, and merchandise that we make available in other areas," Anderson said.

W. L. Granison, the other comanager of the store, who is black, started in a Woolworth stockroom and worked his way up through the executive training program. (Three managerial assistants on the staff were also promoted through this program.) In charge of store operations, merchandising, promotions, staff, and training, Granison said he was particularly pleased not only with the "superb job" done by the all-black staff in getting the operation rolling, but also with the "exceptionally high quality of workmanship done by the predominantly black construction workers from the Fourteenth Street area in building the new store."

Granison said the store does not take any special security measures, "just the usual guards." He feels shoplifting and vandalism have been less of a problem than in other disadvantaged areas because of Woolworth's approach to the community.

Granison said other merchants in the area have told him that the return of Woolworth has helped them by drawing shoppers back to the neighborhood. And he is optimistic about the prospects for economic resurgence of the area.

"A large shoe store is opening next door, and a large specialty shop for women has reopened in the next block," he pointed out. "Now that the pattern is broken, others will follow. This is a heavily populated neighborhood and the residents don't want to have to go outside to shop. Bus and taxi fares are high and rising. Once merchants see that Fourteenth Street is safe for business, we're going to have new stores and buildings all up and down this area. And we're going to do it together."

Labor Dept. photos by Harrison Allen

A deserted newsstand serves as a reminder of the businesses which have not returned to Fourteenth Street.

Comanager Walter L. Granison discusses the stock inventory in the notions department with salesclerk Margaret Richardson.

The new store was rebuilt on the site of one that was completely burned out in the riots following the assassination of Martin Luther King in April 1968.

Granison's faith in the renaissance of upper Fourteenth Street as a job-producing retail center may be well placed, but Woolworth's willingness to reinvest in a riot-damaged area may not be shared by other firms. A survey of Urban League executive secretaries in seven other large cities turned up only one case of a major retailer rebuilding a ghetto-area store that had been seriously damaged or destroyed in a riot.

Some black leaders of community action groups feel that reopening stores under the same arrangements that prevailed before is not enough.

"I wouldn't say I was so enthusiastic about the reopening of that store," said Marion Barry, executive director of PRIDE, Inc., an organization that is working to develop and promote black entrepreneurship in Washington. "It's all right, of course, as far as it goes, but that's not far enough. We should be talking about joint ventures with people—say, a partnership basis between Woolworth and black owners.

"It could be a joint venture with the black community, an outright gift to the community, or lending the community money for economic and social development. When you rebuild in a city, 51 percent or more of the project should be owned by the people in the community."

Minority Training Efforts

Although they are not prepared to endorse community ownership of their stores on a wide-scale basis, executives at Woolworth headquarters in New York agree that private enterprise is not doing enough for disadvantaged minorities.

"We think that we're doing as much, if not more than any other company in meeting the responsibilities of business on levels higher than the merchandising of goods," H. P. Smith, a vice president of the huge retailing chain said. "But it is true that private industry is not doing enough."

"We're constantly trying to do more," said Aubrey C. Lewis, a personnel representative who coordinates overall college recruitment. One of several Negroes in the higher echelons of the company, Lewis pointed out that the new Washington store was only part of the company's 3-year program for improvement of its facilities in areas populated by minority groups. The program through the next 3 years calls for construction of six new stores in areas heavily populated by minorities and the enlargement and improvement of 39 others.

Woolworth executives stated that the company has for many years been a leader in the retail industry in employing minority group members, often using the State employment service as a source for recruits. In addition to following a strict policy of nondiscriminatory hiring, they said the company actively recruits blacks, Spanish Americans, and other minorities for its executive training program which has produced a growing number of executives from these groups.

Regional offices and store managers work with agencies in urban areas to hire and train sales people from the ghettos. They assist these agencies in preparing high school dropouts to qualify for sales clerks' jobs (by supplying training aids, such as cash registers, counters, lecturers, etc.), and give jobs in Woolworth stores to graduates of the programs.

A substantial amount of consumer goods sold by Woolworth across the Nation is produced by companies owned and operated by blacks. The company has placed large orders for whiskbrooms, desk stands, and other consumer items with Negro-owned businesses and is working with these firms in a continuing program to help in the improvement of packaging, production quality, and uniformity of products to meet its requirements for large-scale marketing. To handle the high-volume orders, Negro firms will have to hire additional employees and this should be a significant factor in increasing Negro employment, Woolworth officials said.

As for black ownership of Woolworth stores, one approach to that concept is now a reality. A new store, one of the chain's largest, is now nearing completion in New York's Harlem. Under a unique sale-and-leaseback arrangement, this building has been sold to Harlem Freedom Associates, a partnership composed of black citizens from various walks of life and an investment banking firm. The arrangement, the first of its kind according to Woolworth officials, calls for transfer of ownership of the $2 million property, land and completed building, to black citizens. Harlem Freedom Associates deeded the land on which the building stands to a trust formed by Harlem black leaders, including ministers and leaders of the Congress on Racial Equality and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. Woolworth will lease the property from the new owners and operate the store as a tenant. After the mortgage has been paid off, the trustees of the property will use the income from the rental for improvement of the Harlem community.

According to Hilton E. Brown, Negro manager of the new store, the annual payroll, most of which will remain in Harlem, will be over $500,000. A large Negro construction firm with over 500 employees is building the store under a $1 million Woolworth contract.

Similar Transfers Planned

Praised by urban sociologists and community action groups throughout the country, the Harlem project has been called a "landmark in the reform of land ownership in disadvantaged neighborhoods," by Wyatt Tee Walker, minister of the Canaan Baptist Church, a trustee in the group which was given the land occupied by the store.

A statement issued by Harlem Freedom Associates at the announcement of the details of the project cites the 1968 Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders on "the importance of giving special encouragement to Negro ownership of business in ghetto areas," and asserts:

"Those who have analyzed the destruction and violence that has inflamed the cities trace one of the sources to the lack of identity by black residents with the business and property ownership that surrounds them. Ownership or participation in ownership of commercial facilities operating within urban communities is an important step toward the development of an indigenous entrepreneurial base within the black community."

Woolworth is planning other such projects. "This is just the first," Smith said, "just a beginning. We will consider similar arrangements with transfer of property to minority groups whenever conditions warrant it." □

E&D Reports

Following is a selected list of reports on experimental and demonstration (E&D) projects funded by the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. Single copies are available from the Office of Special Manpower Programs, Room 206, Longfellow Building, 1741 Rhode Island Avenue, NW., Washington, D.C. 20210. Special arrangements may be made for bulk orders. The reports describe projects which were intended to develop, test, and refine new techniques to meet manpower problems.

Manpower Development and Training in Correctional Programs

Collection of presentations at a series of regional conferences for correctional, parole, employment security, vocational education, and vocational rehabilitation personnel which were called to help prepare for a special pilot program of training and related assistance for prisoners about to be released. Experiences of E&D and research projects that led to authorization by Congress of the special pilot program were discussed at the conferences. Topics covered in the report include administration problems of training programs, counseling, education, and training versus maintenance and other prison work programs, use of nonprofessionals and volunteers, job development and placement of the ex-offender, improving the reading level of disadvantaged adults, and program evaluation.

Breakthrough for Disadvantaged Youth

Collection of eight articles, each discussing a different facet of the 55 special projects for youth that were undertaken before 1966. These projects helped identify many of the employment barriers faced by disadvantaged youth, and spurred the development of various methods for overcoming them. Each article is available in a separate reprint. The articles stress what was learned from the projects that might be useful to others planning and conducting manpower programs for the disadvantaged. The articles and their authors are:

Impact on the Community, by Edward Glaser and Roger Wickland

Recruitment and Community Penetration, by John Martin

Testing, Counseling, and Supportive Services, by Jesse Gordon

Basic Education, by Patricia Sexton

Prevocational and Vocational Training Programs, by Joseph Seiler

Job Placement, Creation, and Development, by Louis Ferman

Using the Nonprofessional, by Charles Grosser

Research, by James Jones

Orientation, Counseling, and Assessment in Manpower Programs

Booklet summarizing some of the findings of several projects which concentrated on the development of systems of orientation, counseling, and assessment for the disadvantaged as basic components of manpower programs. The booklet is intended as a general guide for program design and operations staffs and covers objectives of an orientation program, characteristics of disadvantaged enrollees, structure and content of an orientation program, methods of communication, measuring of progress, counseling and supportive services, testing and assessment, problems of holding power, resource materials, and checklist questions for a program director.

The Draper Project

Three-volume final report of prisoner training projects conducted at the Draper Correctional Center, Elmore, Ala. The Draper Project was the most productive of the E&D prisoner training efforts and was a widely observed innovator and developer of programed training materials. Volume I discusses reflectively several years of experimentation in the education and rehabilitation of public offenders. Volume II is a technical manual which describes the total treatment process: Recruitment, selection, training, counseling, job development and placement, and community follow-through and evaluation. Volume III describes the project's approach to the use of programed instructional materials.

Jobs Now Project

Final report for the period from late 1967 through 1968 of this pioneering project which first explored the approach of "hire first, train later" and was the forerunner of much that has been incorporated into the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) and the National Alliance of Businessmen Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program. The report includes a general review and summary, covering the basic Jobs Now project, which refers gang-oriented youth to employment after a 2-week orientation and assessment period, and the Employer Manpower Systems which assists employers in establishing "high supports" for disadvantaged new employees. It also includes a Coaching Handbook for those who assist newly placed employees, and a Human Relations Handbook describing in some detail how the project conducts its 2-week orientation program.

Skill Achievement Institute

Five-volume report, leading off with a summary volume, describing the operational methods and results of a project which offered employers assistance in conducting brief intensive training to upgrade low-paid workers. After a successful tryout in New York, the developers of this effort, called High Intensity Training, were funded as the Skill Achievement Institute to direct similar projects in Newark, Baltimore, and Cleveland, each under somewhat different auspices, to further refine and test the effectiveness of such assistance for upgrading. High Intensity Training generally involves 40 hours of both skill training and human relations instruction spread over several weeks, provided to employed workers on the employer's premises during work time. Those selected for training are guaranteed raises and promotions to predetermined new jobs on successful completion of the course. In addition to the summary volume the report includes: Vol. I, An Applied Model for Project Management; Vol. II, Guidelines for Marketing and Sales; Vol. III, High Intensity Training Methodology; Vol. IV, An Analysis of the Short Range Impact of High Intensity Training.

Technical Training for the Disadvantaged

Proceedings of a workshop at Oak Ridge, Tenn., conducted by the Training and Technology project, Oak Ridge Associated Universities, and the Department of Labor in cooperation with the National Alliance of Businessmen. The workshop discussed the experience of Union Carbide in the use of its facilities and personnel to train disadvantaged persons in skills that are currently in short supply. The aim of the workshop was to stimulate employers to enter into contracts with the Government to train the disadvantaged under the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program. The presentation by J. Leo Waters, manager of the project for Union Carbide, describes the management techniques that were useful in the training program and concludes that the job requires community-union - industry - education - government cooperation and participation. The report on the workshop provides useful material for employers who propose to train disadvantaged persons for jobs currently in short supply, and also includes information on specific development of a JOBS Program and use of educational and other community resources.

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